

*FACTORS INFLUENCING SECONDARY  
BILE ACID FORMATION IN MAN*

*with reference to colonic carcinogenesis*

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SECONDARY BILE ACID FORMATION IN MAN  
WITH REFERENCE TO COLONIC CARCINOGENESIS**

**Een wetenschappelijke proeve  
op het gebied van de Geneeskunde en Tandheelkunde**

**PROEFSCHRIFT**

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# Table of contents

Introduction and outline of the studies	1
Chapter I    Bile acids and colonic carcinogenesis	3
Chapter II    Determination of individual human faecal bile acids by gas-liquid chromatography after enzymatic deconjugation and simultaneous solvolysis and methylation using dimethoxypropane	19
Chapter III    Influence of age, intestinal transit time, and dietary composition on faecal bile acid profiles in healthy subjects.	33
Chapter IV    Inhibition of secondary bile acid formation in the large intestine by lactulose in healthy subjects of two different age groups.	45
Chapter V    The effect of a natural high fibre diet on faecal and biliary bile acids, faecal pH and whole gut transit time in man. A controlled study	59
Chapter VI    Relationship between biliary and serum bile acids. Prediction of the molar percentage of deoxycholic acid (DCA) in bile from the DCA content in serum.	75
Summary and conclusions	87
Samenvatting en conclusies	95
Dankbetuiging	103
Curriculum Vitae	105



# Introduction and outline of the studies

Colonic carcinogenesis in man seems to be related to dietary habits. A high dietary fat and low fibre intake is associated with a high prevalence of colonic cancer. Epidemiological investigations cannot clarify whether this association is causal and if so, by which mechanisms these dietary factors exert their action. An aspect of diet, which is regarded important is the influence on secondary bile acid formation in the large bowel. Secondary bile acids have been incriminated in colonic carcinogenesis, since it has been shown that these compounds have tumour promoting capacities in animal models, are co-mutagenic and enhance colonic mucosal proliferation. The concentration of secondary bile acids in the large bowel seems to be associated with the risk of developing colonic cancer.

The main purpose of the studies presented in this thesis is to extend the knowledge about factors that modulate secondary bile acid formation.

In chapter I a review is given on the possible role of bile acids in colonic carcinogenesis. Chapter II describes the methodology of faecal bile acid analysis. In chapter III it is shown that faecal bile acid concentration is age-dependent and related to changes in fibre consumption with advancing age. Chapter IV provides evidence that secondary bile acid formation can be reduced by acidification of colonic contents. The effect of a natural high fibre diet on stool characteristics and biliary and faecal bile acid profiles are presented in chapter V. In chapter VI the relationship between the molar percentages of deoxycholic acid in bile and serum is presented.



CHAPTER I

# Bile acids and colonic carcinogenesis

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# Bile acids and colonic carcinogenesis

## Abstract

Dietary factors are considered important environmental risk determinants for colorectal cancer development. From epidemiological observations a high fat intake is associated positively and a high fibre intake negatively with colorectal cancer. One mechanism by which these effects are possibly exerted is through bile acid metabolism. Secondary bile acids are formed after enzymatic deconjugation and dehydroxylation of the primary bile acids in the large bowel by anaerobic bacteria. It has been shown that these secondary bile acids can have tumour promoting capacities. They are co-mutagenic and have shown co-carcinogenic properties in animal studies. Furthermore, secondary bile acids can enhance colonic epithelial proliferation. In populations and patients at high risk for developing colorectal cancer higher faecal concentrations and colonic absorption of secondary bile acids can be found. The formation of secondary bile acids increases with advancing age. Dietary fat increases and dietary fibre reduces the concentration of bile acids in the large bowel. Inhibition of secondary bile acid formation can be achieved by acidification of colonic contents.

In colorectal carcinogenesis, environmental factors such as dietary habits influence genetic susceptibility. Secondary bile acids could play a promoting role in this process.

## Introduction

Bile acids are the major end products of cholesterol metabolism. The primary bile acids cholic acid (CA) and chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA) are secreted into bile as glycine or taurine conjugates. They serve as cholesterol solubilizing agents and play an important role in the digestion and absorption of lipids in the small intestine. More than 95% of the bile acids, passing the terminal ileum are reabsorbed and returned to the liver. Efficient conservation of the bile acids in the enterohepatic circulation is thus maintained. The proportion of bile acids not absorbed in the small intestine is 2-3% per cycle and amounts to an average loss of 20% of the primary bile acid pool with 6-12 enterohepatic circulations per day (giving a primary bile acid load to the large bowel of approximately 1.5-2.0 mmol/day). The bile acids that escape absorption in the ileum, are metabolized by the anaerobic

colonic flora. Thus, after deconjugation the primary bile acids CA and CDCA are dehydroxylated and converted into the secondary bile acids deoxycholic acid (DCA) and lithocholic acid (LCA) respectively. Further bacterial degradation and alterations in the liver produces tertiary bile acids (see figure 1). DCA is partly absorbed in the (proximal) colon and enters the enterohepatic circulation (about 0.2-0.5 mmol/day). LCA is almost entirely insoluble and very little is absorbed. In the circulating bile acid pool, CA and CDCA each comprise about 30-40%, DCA 20-30%, and LCA accounts for only 1-3% of the total. The bile acids not absorbed in the ileum and colon are excreted in the faeces. More than 90% of the bile acids excreted (about 0.5-1 mmol/day) are the unconjugated secondary bile acids DCA and LCA (1, 2). In figure 2 the enterohepatic circulation of bile acids is shown.

The secondary bile acids DCA and LCA are suspected to play a promoting role in colonic carcinogenesis, and lines of evidence and possible mechanisms will be discussed in this review.

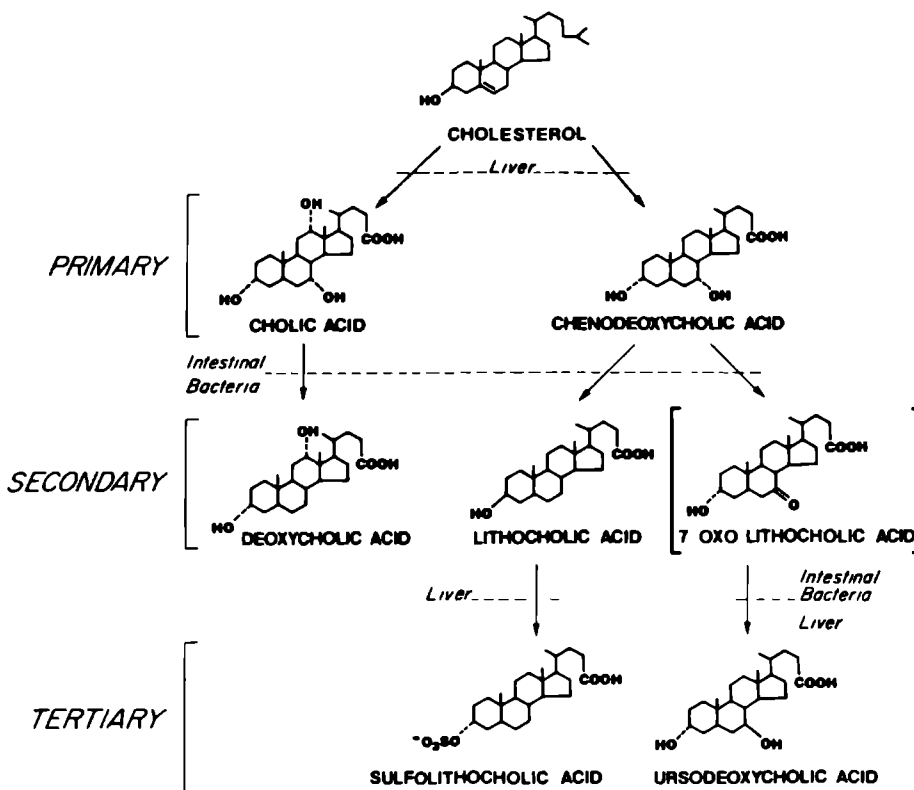


Figure 1 Synthesis and transformation of the major bile acids from cholesterol.



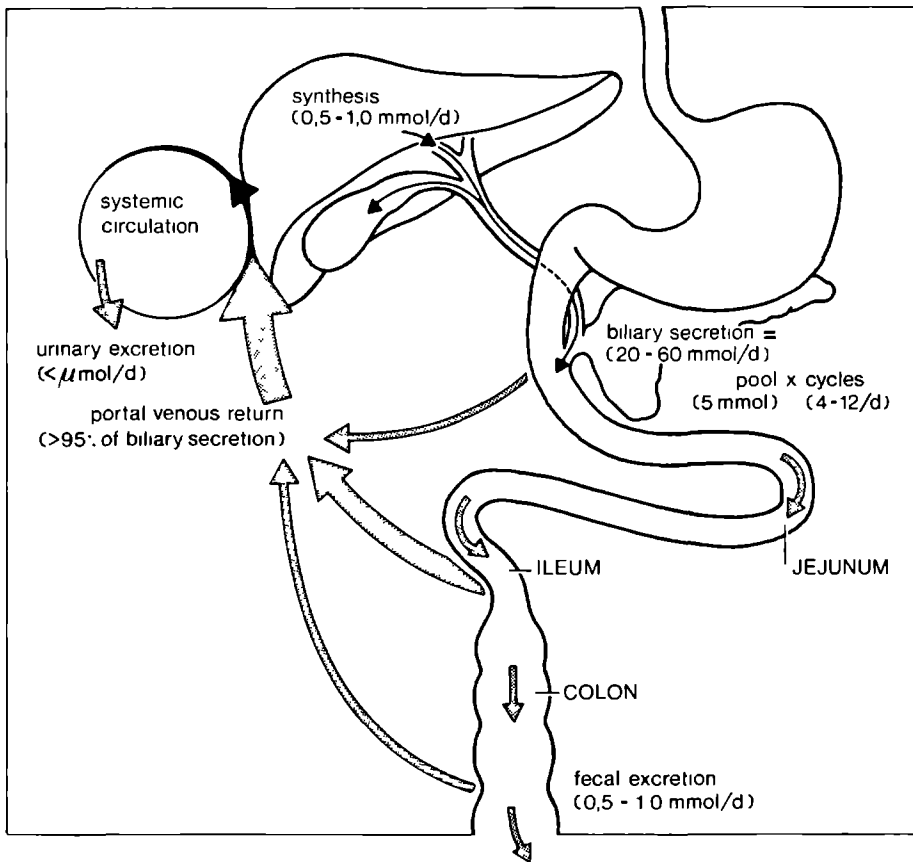


Figure 2 The enterohepatic circulation of bile acids in man

### Epidemiological observations

The incidence of colonic cancer is high in Western countries, but low in Africa. Annual incidence rates vary from 1.3 per 100,000 inhabitants in Nigeria to 30 per 100,000 in parts of the USA and Scotland (3-5). The annual mortality (per 100,000 inhabitants) in the Netherlands in 1986 for colorectal cancer was 25.8 for males and 27.7 for females (6). Dietary factors are considered to be among the most important risk determinants for large bowel carcinogenesis (7). In this respect a diet high in animal fat is held responsible for an increased risk and consumption of a fibre-rich diet is considered to be protective (7,8-14). Migrant studies revealed that migrants from low-incidence to high-incidence areas acquired a higher risk for large bowel cancer, with an increase in risk apparent already in the first generation (10, 15-17). Furthermore, within a given high risk population

groups with different life styles have different incidences of colonic cancer. Mormons and Seventh Day Adventists in the USA have a lower incidence (18-19). They consume a diet low in fat and high in fibre. A likely explanation of the differences observed is the divergent dietary composition. Besides the influence of fat and fibre, other dietary constituents such as trace elements (selenium) and vitamins have been suggested to play a role and have a protective effect (7).

### *Fat*

The hypothesis postulates that a high fat diet enhances the formation and degradation of bile acids and neutral sterols and that these compounds exert a promoting or cocarcinogenic effect on the large bowel mucosa (20). Indeed, it has been found that dietary fat increases the output and faecal concentration of bile acids (21-24) and epidemiological evidence has shown that populations on a high fat and animal protein diet excrete twice the amount of secondary bile acids (7, 25-28). The concentration of these bile acids was even more increased. However, studies on dietary consumption patterns with time in the United States, England, Australia and New Zealand have failed to demonstrate a correlation between a high fat, high protein intake and colorectal cancer incidence (29, 30). Case control studies concerning the relation of diet and large bowel cancer have given conflicting results (19, 31-33), showing a positive association between fat and protein consumption and large bowel cancer in some (19, 31), but no association in other studies (32, 33).

### *Fibre*

A high dietary fibre intake possibly protects against colorectal carcinogenesis (7, 20). Epidemiological studies have shown a negative correlation between dietary fibre consumption and large bowel cancer incidence (26-28, 30). Also, case-control studies have demonstrated a significantly lower fibre consumption in cancer patients (35-37). The effect is thought to act via several mechanisms: dilution of the colonic contents by water-retaining capacities of certain parts of the fibres; binding of promoting substances like bile acids; accelerating intestinal transit, leaving less contact time between (co)carcinogens and the bowel mucosa and fermentation of hemicellulose and other components of fibre with the production of short chain fatty acids which reduce the colonic pH. This increase in acidification of the proximal large bowel contents can influence bacterial metabolism and suppress the formation of secondary bile acids or reduce their solubility (38-40). Different parts of fibres probably have divergent effects, but in the whole a diet rich in fibre reduces the faecal concentration of bile acids. The total output of bile acids can increase but often does not change (38-40). The Finnish population has a low incidence of colonic cancer despite a rather high fat intake. It has been

shown that the lower incidence correlates well with the high fibre intake of this population (26, 27, 34). Faecal bile acid concentrations in Finland (especially in rural areas) were much lower than those in other parts of Scandinavia or the United States. A protective role, not for the total dietary fibre intake but for the pentose fraction, was assumed by Bingham et al. (41).

## Experimental evidence

The hypothesis that the relation between diet and colorectal cancer incidence is established via bile acid metabolism has led to many experimental studies in animal models, on the cellular level and in man.

### *Animal experiments*

Secondary bile acids can act as tumour promoters in animal experiments. Because spontaneous colorectal cancer rarely occurs in animals, initiating carcinogens such as azoxymethane and 1,2-dimethyldihydrazine have to be used. Studies have been performed both by dietary manipulation (with fat and fibre) and by direct application of bile acids to the colonic mucosa (42-50). Most studies have been carried out in rodent models (rat, mouse). It has been shown that DCA and LCA have tumourpromoting capacities and that this effect is also present in germfree animals; further degradation is therefore not a prerequisite (45, 46). The primary bile acids have a much less pronounced effect on carcinogenesis (46). Feeding rats high fat diets resulted in a higher tumour yield and an increased faecal bile acid concentration (42, 43). Addition of fibre can reduce the tumour yield (48, 49), although, results were contradictory in this respect (50).

### *Mutagenity studies*

Invitro testing by the Salmonella mutagenit assay (Ames test) demonstrated that the secondary bile acids exert comutagenic effects, but are not mutagens themselves (51-53). LCA can break DNA strands in a cultured L1210 cell line as well (54). In the hamster embryo cell transformation assay LCA, but not its sulphate ester was mutagenic (55). It has recently been demonstrated that both the concentration of secondary bile acids and a high faecal mutagen excretion in man could be reduced by suppletion of extra fibre to the diet (56).

### *Proliferative activity*

It has been postulated that an increased colonic epithelial proliferative activity is related to an increased risk for the development of cancer (57). In the normal mucosa proliferative activity resides in the lower and middle regions of the colo-

nic crypts. During enhanced proliferative activity, epithelial cells show an increased ability to proliferate and accumulate in the upper parts of the mucosa. This proliferation can be measured by the [ $^3\text{H}$ ]-thymidine labelling index (57-59) and recently by a new assay measuring the ornithine decarboxylase activity in the mucosa (60). This last enzyme is rate-limiting in the synthesis of polyamines, which play an important role in the proliferation of intestinal cells (61, 62). Secondary bile acids have been shown to enhance proliferative activity both in animal and human epithelial cells (63-68). It has been suggested that the concentration of the bile acids in the faecal water fraction (e.g. the soluble fraction) is the major determinant of this effect (69-70). The effect is possibly inhibited by calcium (71) and it has been suggested that adding extra calcium to the diet could be beneficial in the prevention of large bowel cancer (72). Data, however, are still incomplete and more studies are needed before firm conclusions can be drawn in this respect (69).

### Human studies

Since epidemiological population-based studies incriminated bile acids in the aetiology of colorectal cancer, several investigations in man have been carried out. Most studies were case-control experiments in which the faecal bile acid concentration and excretion was the main parameter. Subjects were patients with large bowel cancer or persons at a high risk for developing this tumour (e.g. patients with colonic adenomas, longstanding ulcerative colitis or with a familial occurrence of the tumour). Controls were healthy subjects as well as patients with non malignant bowel diseases or non gastrointestinal diseases. The results of all these studies were conflicting: in some a higher secondary faecal bile acid concentration was shown in patients with colorectal cancer or subjects at higher risk (73, 74). However, most studies did not reveal any difference (75-80) or even demonstrated a higher faecal bile acid concentration in patients without colorectal cancer (81). This discrepancy is probably due partly to the fact that age and dietary intake of fat and fibre were not controlled in most of these investigations. Faecal bile acid concentration proves to be age-dependent and related to the dietary intake of fibre (82).

In some studies biliary bile acids were measured or bile acid kinetic studies were carried out. The absorption of DCA in the colon proved to be age-dependent as well (83), to be higher in adenoma patients than in age-matched controls, and to coincide with a more anaerobic environment (84, 85). Recently, a larger fraction of CDCA in bile was shown in adenoma and carcinoma patients than in controls (86). Owen et al (87) have suggested that not only the secondary bile acid fraction in faeces is a determinant of the risk of colorectal cancer. They found a signifi-

cantly higher LCA/DCA ratio in stools of high risk subjects, suggesting an increased synthesis rate of CDCA over CA in the liver and thus in agreement with the increase of CDCA in bile in adenoma and carcinoma patients. However, interpretations must be made with caution, because in these last studies no kinetic experiments were carried out.

### **Cholecystectomy and colorectal cancer**

Patients with a cholecystectomy have a higher proportion of DCA in their enterohepatic circulation, probably due to a more continuous and frequent enterohepatic circulation and therefore exposure of a larger quantity of bile acids to the colonic flora (1). It must be noted in this respect that cholelithiasis itself can be associated with an increase in DCA in bile (88-91). In animal experiments cholecystectomy led to an increase in colonic tumours in one but not in another study (92,93). In man, the relation between cholecystectomy and the development of colorectal cancer has been studied quite intensively in retrospective case-control studies. Results varied from an increase in risk especially in the proximal colon in women, to no difference in the groups studied (94). Two "prospective" studies evaluating patients with a cholecystectomy were also contradictory: in a Mayo Clinic study an increased risk was found (95), whereas a Swedish study revealed no increased cancer risk (96). Reviewing the data so far obtained, no firm conclusions can be drawn. Possibly a common dietary factor predisposing to gallstone disease and thus to cholecystectomy is also implicated in colonic carcinogenesis. It cannot be ruled out that an increased risk for developing rightsided colonic cancer, especially in females, does exist after cholecystectomy.

### **Modulation of secondary bile acid metabolism**

Theoretically, inhibition of the formation of secondary bile acids in the large bowel should lead to a lower colonic cancer risk. In animal experiments manipulation of diet with dietary factors such as fibre can indeed decrease the tumour yield and secondary bile acid formation. In man, faecal mutagenity and faecal bile acid concentration were inhibited by adding extra fibre to the diet (56). Lactulose can inhibit DCA formation and absorption by reducing colonic pH and possibly by an effect on intestinal transit time (97, 98).

Nevertheless, it is not clear at this moment whether the inhibition of secondary bile acid formation really reduces the risk of the development of colonic cancer in man and which role dietary habits play in this process. Prospective dietary intervention studies now in progress (69) may give more insight into this issue.

## Role of bile acids in colonic carcinogenesis

Both epidemiological observations and experimental studies in animals have shown that secondary bile acids are possibly involved in colorectal carcinogenesis.

The diverging results of case-control studies are partly related to methodological problems and inadequate matching for dietary habits and age between cases and controls. It has recently been shown that bile acids can influence the proliferative activity of the colonic epithelial cells, and this effect can be modulated by dietary means (69). Surely, if involved, bile acids are only one factor in the causation of this tumour and many other intraluminal and systemic factors contribute. The intraluminal pH in the large bowel could play a key role in this respect. A high colonic pH favours the degradation of many compounds (e.g. bile acids) while these reactions are inhibited at lower pH values. In colorectal carcinogenesis, environmental factors such as dietary habits probably influence genetically determined susceptibility. Secondary bile acids could play a promoting role in this process (see figure 3).

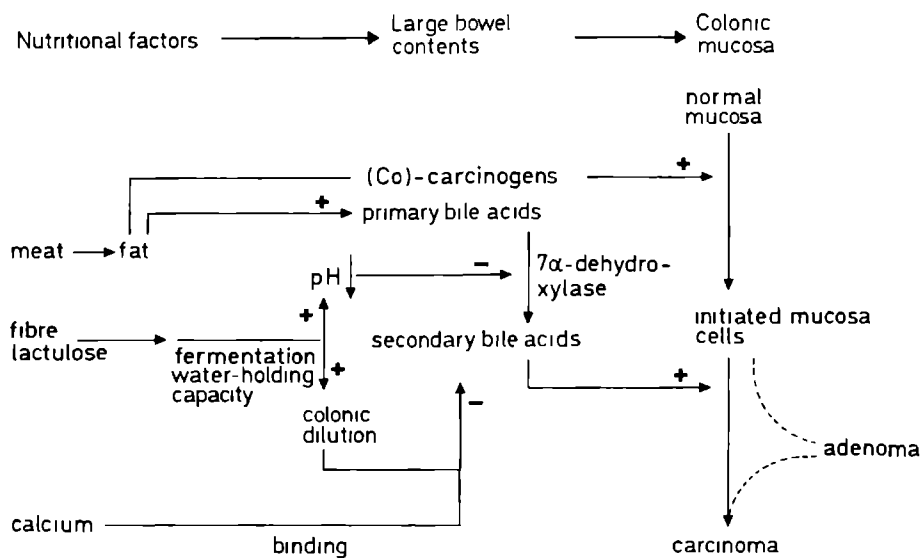


Figure 3 Hypothesis colonic carcinogenesis in man, with special reference to the role of secondary bile acids

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# Determination of individual human faecal bile acids by gas-liquid chromatography after enzymatic deconjugation and simultaneous solvolysis and methylation using dimethoxypropane

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# Determination of individual human faecal bile acids by gas-liquid chromatography after enzymatic deconjugation and simultaneous solvolysis and methylation using dimethoxypropane

## Abstract

A simple procedure for the determination of bile acids in freeze-dried faeces is described. After enzymatic deconjugation and saponification, bile acids are simultaneously solvolysed and methylated using 2,2 dimethoxypropane. Analysis of the individual bile acids is performed by gas-liquid chromatography. Recoveries of (un)conjugated and sulfated bile acids, added to faeces, were adequate and reproducible. The extraction efficiency for 2 endogenously present bile acids, investigated by injecting radiolabelled bile acids in two patients, proved to be satisfactory.

The advantage of the proposed method is the rapid determination of bile acids in a considerable number of faecal samples, allowing the measurement of the major human faecal bile acids including conjugates and sulfates.

## Introduction

In recent years there has been a renewed interest in the measurement of faecal bile acids, because of the possible involvement in colorectal carcinogenesis [1, 2]. Several methods have been employed for the determination of individual bile acids in human faeces [3-8]. Major problems in the measurement are the extraction of bile acids from the particulate matter in the stool and interference of fatty acids and neutral steroids in the gas-liquid chromatographic (GLC) analysis. Furthermore, conjugated and/or sulfated bile acids can be present in human faeces; therefore a deconjugation and solvolysis step should be included in the analytical procedure [9-15].

Recently, a very detailed method has been described in which all faecal bile acid metabolites are measured, including conjugated and sulfated [16]. The procedure,

however, is time consuming and needs expensive and not widely available equipment like capillary GLC-mass spectrometry.

We developed a rapid gas-liquid chromatographic procedure for the determination of individual human faecal bile acids, using enzymatic deconjugation and subsequently solvolysis and methylation in one step with 2,2-dimethoxypropane.

## Materials and methods

### *Chemicals*

All reagents for extraction and analysis were of analytical grade and obtained from Merck Darmstadt (FRG).  $\beta$ -Cholylglycine hydrolase (EC 35.12.24; sp. act. 7194 U/mg protein; 1.39 mg protein/ml) was obtained from Schwarz-Mann (Orangeburg, NY, USA).

### *Bile acid standards*

The following reference bile acids were obtained from Steraloids Inc. (Wilton, NH, USA): lithocholic acid (LCA), deoxycholic acid (DCA), chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), cholic acid (CA) and 7-ketodeoxycholic acid (7-K-DCA). Taurocholic acid (TCA) and glycocholic acid (GC) were obtained from Calbiochemical (San Diego, CA, USA). The sulfated bile acids 3 $\alpha$ -sulfolithocholic acid (SLCA), 3 $\alpha$ -sulfodeoxycholic acid (SDCA) and sulfochenodeoxycholic acid (SCDCA; consisting of 70% 3 $\alpha$ -sulfo CDCA and 30% 7 $\alpha$ -sulfo CDCA) were obtained from P.L.-Biochemicals (Milwaukee, WI, USA). All reference bile acids were more than 95% pure.

Radiolabelled [24- $^{14}$ C] lithocholic acid (50 mCi/mmol) and [24- $^{14}$ C] deoxycholic acid (60 mCi/mmol) were obtained from the Radiochemical Centre, Amersham (UK). [24- $^{14}$ C] Chenodeoxycholic acid (50 mCi/mmol) was obtained from New England Nuclear (Boston, MA, USA).

### *Instruments*

Faeces were homogenized using a Philips mixer and freeze-dried subsequently in a Breda Scientific Freeze dryer LY-S-FM. Gas-liquid chromatography was performed on a F&M 402 high efficiency chromatograph (Hewlett Packard, Avondale, USA) with a U-shaped all glass column, 1.20 m x 3 mm i.d., packed with 1% OV-210 on Gaschrom Q, 100-120 mesh (Chrompack, Middelburg, The Netherlands). Operating conditions for gas liquid chromatography were: oven temperature 235 °C, temperature injection point 250 °C, temperature flame ionisation detector 245 °C. Nitrogen was used as a carrier gas, flow rate 20 ml/min; hydrogen 40 ml/min, air 310 ml/min. Retention times and peak areas were measured with a computing integrator (Minigrator, Spectra-Physics, Eindhoven, The



Netherlands) and chromatograms recorded on a recorder of Honeywell Controls LTD (UK). Radioactivity was determined in a Philips liquid scintillation counter PW4700 (Philips, The Netherlands). Combustion of faecal samples for determination of total  $^{14}\text{C}$ -radioactivity was performed in a sample oxidator, according to Griffith [17].

#### *Collection and preparation of faeces*

Fresh voided faeces were collected and frozen in solid  $\text{CO}_2$ . After weighing it was diluted with a known amount of distilled water and homogenized with a mixer at a temperature of  $80^\circ\text{C}$  (to speed up thawing and denature bile acid converting enzymes). A sample (10 g) was immediately frozen ( $-20^\circ\text{C}$ ), lyophilized during 48 hours and stored at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  until analysis.

#### *Analytical procedure*

The method is a modification of the Grundy technique [3]. The procedure is illustrated in the flow sheet (figure 1). The procedure is described here stepwise:

#### *Enzymatic deconjugation*

50 mg lyophilized faeces are weighed in a glass stoppered centrifuge tube. Two millilitres of  $0.1\text{ mol/l}$  sodium acetate buffer ( $\text{pH } 5.7$  with  $2.0\text{ gram EDTA liter}^{-1}$  and  $0.2\text{ ml } \beta\text{-mercaptoethanol liter}^{-1}$ ) and  $50\text{ }\mu\text{l}$  cholyglycine hydrolase are added. Incubation is carried out overnight in a waterbath at  $37^\circ\text{C}$ .

#### *Saponification*

To each sample  $0.1\text{ ml}$   $5\text{ mmol/l}$  7-K-DCA is added as an internal standard to correct for losses during the procedure. One ml  $10\text{ mol/l}$  sodium hydroxide,  $6\text{ ml}$  methanol and some boiling chips are added and the mixture is refluxed for 2 hours at boiling point.

#### *Extraction of neutral steroids*

Neutral steroids are extracted 3 times in petroleum ether after shaking and centrifugation.

#### *Solvolysis and methylation*

After the extraction of the neutral steroids  $1.0\text{ ml HCL}$  and per ml aqueous solution  $7.0\text{ ml DMP}$  is added. After mixing, incubation is carried out for 18 hours in the dark (to prevent formation of pigment polymers) at  $37^\circ\text{C}$ . After this overnight incubation the mixture is evaporated under a stream of nitrogen at  $50^\circ\text{C}$ . Beyond this temperature a dark brown residu will appear due to the formation of pigment polymers.

#### *Extraction of bile acids.*

7 ml aqua dest is added to the residu and the methylated bile acids are extracted 3 times with 10 ml diethylether. After completion the diethylether is evaporated under a stream of nitrogen.

#### *Derivatisation.*

The methylated bile acids are converted into their trifluoroacetates by addition of 0.2 ml trifluoroacetic anhydride to the residu and incubation in closed tubes for 20 minutes at 37 °C.

#### *Gas-liquid chromatography.*

The trifluoroacetic anhydride is evaporated and the residu dissolved in 0,2 ml acetone. After injecting a 1 µl sample in the gaschromatograph the bile acids are identified by comparing the retention times to those of reference bile acids and for one keto bile acid with a reference in the literature on a QF-1 column. The amount of bile acid in each sample is calculated by dividing the peak area of the bile acid by that of the internal standard, multiplied by the amount of internal standard added to the sample and corrected for the response factor of the flame ionizing detector.

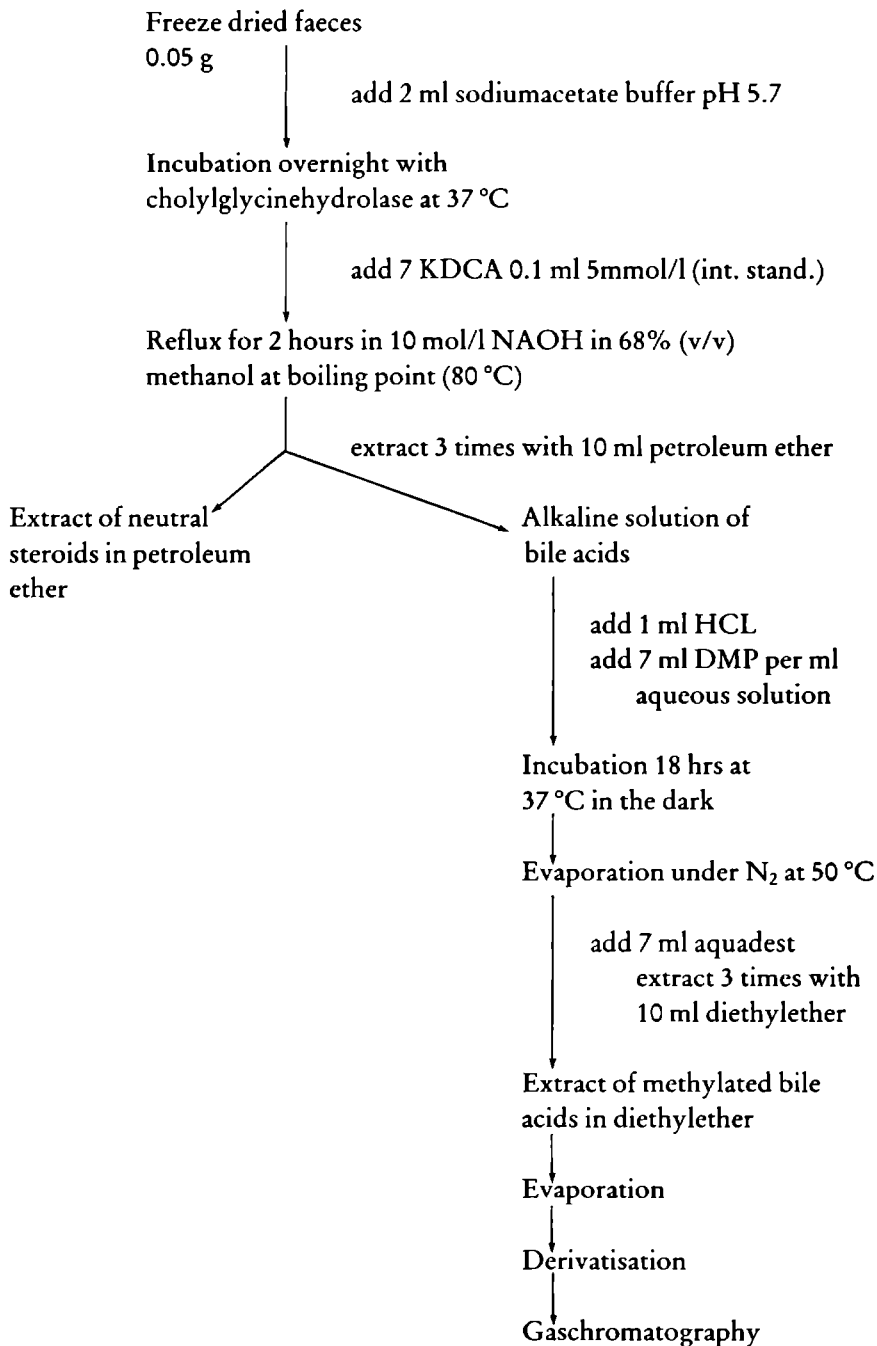
#### *Liquid scintillation counting.*

In case recovery experiments with radio-labeled bile acids are performed, 0.1 ml of the final acetone mixture is transferred into a counting vial and evaporated. The residu is dissolved in a PPO/POPOP mixture (5:0.2/liter) in toluene and counted with external standardization for quench correction.

#### *Determination of accuracy and precision.*

The accuracy of the method is determined by measuring the recoveries of added reference bile acids to lyophilized faeces. Furthermore, the recovery of endogenously present DCA and CDCA in the stool of two patients (injected with <sup>14</sup>C-labelled DCA and CDCA for kinetic studies) is determined by comparing radioactivity in the final acetone extracts with radioactivity measured after direct combustion of the faecal samples.

The intra-assay precision is evaluated by calculating the coefficients of variation from the duplicate measurements of LCA and DCA in a control sample on different days. The inter-assay precision is calculated from the means of the duplicate measurements each day.



*Figure 1 Flow sheet of the method for the analysis of human faecal bile acids.*

## Results

In figure 2A, a gas-liquid chromatogram of a faecal sample with secondary bile acids is shown. Figure 2B shows a gas-liquid chromatogram of a faecal sample in which a considerable quantity of primary bile acids are present. A reasonable separation of bile acids is achieved within 10 minutes. Unfortunately on an OV-210 column isolithocholic acid ( $3\beta$ -hydroxy- $5\beta$ -cholanolic acid) can not be separated from lithocholic acid. In contrast, isodeoxycholic acid ( $3\beta$ ,  $12\alpha$  dihydroxy- $5\beta$ -cholanolic acid) can be separated from deoxycholic acid. At the end of the run keto bile acids are eluted, of which  $3\beta$ ,  $12$  keto- $5\beta$ -cholanolic acid and  $3\alpha$ ,  $12$  keto-

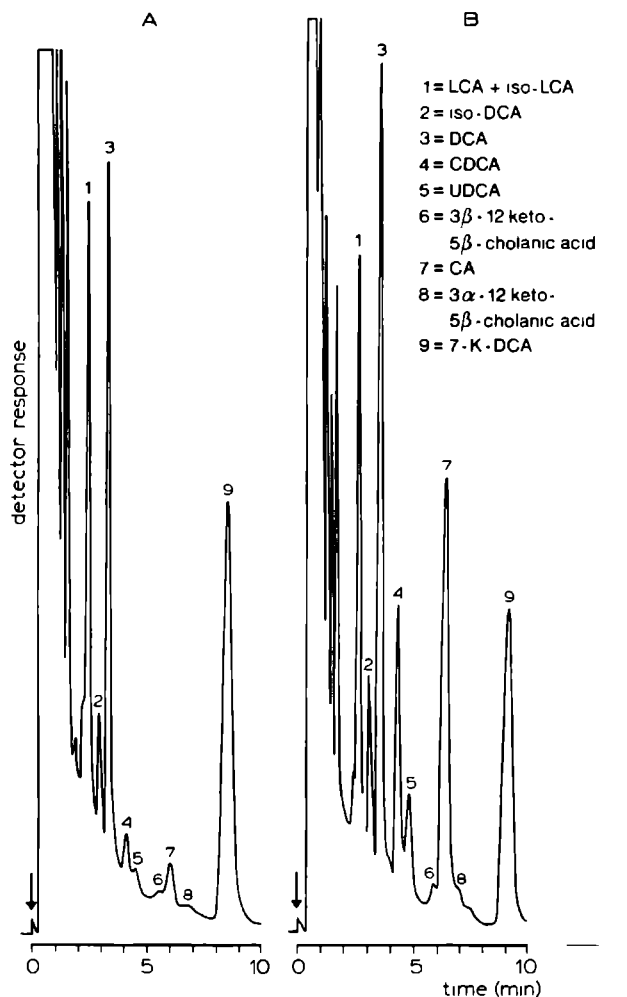


Figure 2 Gas-liquid chromatogram of faecal bile acids in two different stools. A: with secondary bile acids and a minor fraction of primary bile acids. B: with secondary and primary bile acids.

*Table I Recovery of radiolabelled reference bile acids added to faeces*

No. of samples	Added bile acid	Recovery (% $\pm$ SD)
10	[24- $^{14}$ C] LCA	89.7 ( $\pm$ 1.6)
12	[24- $^{14}$ C] DCA	86.3 ( $\pm$ 1.7)
10	[24- $^{14}$ C] CDCA	85.8 ( $\pm$ 2.6)

*Table II Recovery of reference bile acids added to faeces, determined by gas-liquid chromatography*

No. of samples	Added bile acid	Recovery (% $\pm$ SD)
8	LCA	95.8 ( $\pm$ 5.0)
8	DCA	95.5 ( $\pm$ 6.5)
8	CDCA	96.2 ( $\pm$ 8.2)
4	CA	92.8 ( $\pm$ 4.0)
4	GCA	85.5 ( $\pm$ 0.7)
4	TCA	84.5 ( $\pm$ 7.7)
8	SLCA	100.0 ( $\pm$ 10.2)
8	SDCA	101.3 ( $\pm$ 3.0)
8	SCDCA	98.0 ( $\pm$ 5.4)

5 $\beta$ -cholanic acid can be identified. However, these keto bile acids are not always completely separated from cholic acid.

Recoveries of added radiolabelled reference bile acids are shown in table I and proved to be sufficient and reproducible. Recoveries of two conjugated, four unconjugated and three sulfated bile acids, measured by GLC, are sufficient and reproducible as is shown in table II. Recoveries of two endogeneous bile acids (DCA and CDCA) were determined in two patients. In one patient (injected with [24- $^{14}$ C]DCA) only secondary bile acids were present in the stool; in the other patient (injected with [24- $^{14}$ C]CDCA) only primary bile acids were detected in the stool. Faeces was collected during four days. Combustion of faeces in a sample oxidator ( $\pm$  1 gram wet faeces) was used as a reference. The efficacy of the combustion had been determined by adding a known amount of [24- $^{14}$ C] DCA to wet fresh voided faeces. The recovery of the  $^{14}$ CO $_2$  was  $96.7 \pm 6.9\%$  (n=5) of the calculated radioactivity. After extraction of the faeces of the two patients, the

recovery of DCA was  $84.2 \pm 3.9\%$  (mean  $\pm$  SD) and of CDCA  $87.9 \pm 7.3\%$  (mean  $\pm$  SD), compared to combustion in the sample oxidator, as is shown in table III. The intra-assay precision for the determination of the most prominent faecal bile acids LCA and DCA was 2.8% and 4% respectively. The inter-assay precision was 9.0% and 7.2% for LCA and DCA respectively.

*Table III Recovery of  $^{14}\text{C}$  from faeces on 4 consecutive days<sup>a</sup>.*

Patient 1 <sup>b</sup> [24- $^{14}\text{C}$ ]DCA	Radioactivity after combustion (disintegrations $\text{g}^{-1}$ faeces)	Radioactivity after extraction (disintegrations $\text{g}^{-1}$ faeces)	Recovery %
Day 1	1220	1040	85.2
Day 2	8455	7336	86.7
Day 3	6477	5601	86.5
Day 4	10525	8257	78.4
Patient 2 <sup>c</sup> [24- $^{14}\text{C}$ ]CDCA			
Day 1	8419	7441	88.4
Day 2	16193	12891	79.6
Day 3	7077	6890	97.4
Day 4	5076	4383	86.3

a After intravenous injection of [24- $^{14}\text{C}$ ] DCA or [24- $^{14}\text{C}$ ] CDCA in two patients

b Patient with malignant adenoma of the colon and secondary bile acids in faeces.

c Patient with bile acid induced diarrhoea and only primary bile acids in faeces

## Discussion

Most extraction procedures of faecal bile acids are complex, use several purification steps and are time consuming. The Grundy method [3], which is regarded as our reference procedure does not allow the measurement of sulfated bile acids and some keto bile acids. Furthermore, the strong alkaline hydrolysis which is used, can give rise to artefacts [18], like the formation of unsaturated derivatives of sulfated chenodeoxycholic acid. In our method alkaline hydrolysis is replaced by enzymatic deconjugation. The conjugated bile acids are hydrolysed sufficiently.

Bile acids are extracted from the particulate matter by refluxing in an alkaline methanolic solution. We use methanol instead of ethanol to prevent the formation of bile acid ethylesters. The extraction of endogenous DCA and CDCA is acceptable by refluxing for two hours. The extraction efficiency of endogenous LCA could not be detected unfortunately. However, Podesta et al extracted 99% of the radioactivity in faeces of a healthy volunteer who ingested [24-<sup>14</sup>C] CDCA by refluxing two hours in an alkaline ethanolic solution [9]. Since CDCA is normally almost completely dehydroxylated to LCA (+ isoLCA) in the large bowel, the radioactivity would be present in this last fraction.

After the saponification step neutral steroids must be extracted with petroleum ether, because coprostanon can interfere with the gas liquid chromatographic analysis on OV-210. This compound is eluted at the same time as (iso) lithocholic acid.

The extent of sulfation of bile acids in human faeces is still debated. Some investigators found up to 40% sulfated bile acids in human faeces [9, 10], whereas, others found only a minor fraction (less than 5%) sulfated bile acids in human stool [11, 12, 14, 15]. Because sulfated bile acids (mainly sulfated lithocholic acid) can be present in human faeces we decided to carry out a solvolysis procedure.

The solvolysis procedure originally described by Javitt [19] and applied to serum by Cantafora et al [20] seemed appropriate to use for faecal bile acids. An advantage of the method is the simultaneous methylation of the free bile acids that occurs in the acidified anhydrous mixture [21]. To split CDCA-7-sulfate incubation overnight at 37 °C is warranted [22]. We have tried to measure the amount of unsulfated bile acids by extraction of the bile acids after saponification with diethylether at an acidic pH. However, in accordance with Pageaux et al [23] added sulfolithocholic acid was partly solvolysed during this procedure. Even when the extraction was performed at a lower temperature or higher pH partial solvolysis took place. So, quantitative measurement of unsulfated bile acids was not possible.

Recently a rapid extraction procedure for the determination of faecal bile acids was published [8]. Recoveries, however, were measured qualitatively using thin-layer chromatography or quantitatively by enzymatic determination.

In conclusion, the proposed method for the determination of the major bile acid metabolites in human stool by gas liquid-chromatography is rapid and does allow the determination of a considerable number (about 48) of faecal samples in 3 days. The simultaneous solvolysis and methylation of the bile acids after saponification is of particular advantage. Conjugated and sulfated bile acids which may be present in human faeces are included in the determination of the individual bile acids.

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# Influence of age, intestinal transit time and dietary composition on fecal bile acid profiles in healthy subjects

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# Influence of age, intestinal transit time and dietary composition on fecal bile acid profiles in healthy subjects

## Abstract

Bacterial transformation of bile acids is possibly involved in colorectal carcinogenesis. In several epidemiological studies the secondary bile acid concentration in feces is related to the incidence of colonic cancer. However, data on fecal bile acids in case-control studies are conflicting. We investigated the influence of age, intestinal transit time and dietary composition on fecal bile acid profiles in healthy subjects of 3 different age groups (mean age 22, 48 and 67 years). Fecal bile acids were analysed by gas-liquid chromatography.

The concentration of the major secondary fecal bile acids increased with advancing age and was significantly higher in elderly subjects, compared to young adults. The concentration in middle-aged persons was intermediate. Analysis of dietary constituents showed that the fat intake in the three groups was comparable. The dietary fiber intake in elderly subjects was significantly lower than in both other groups. The former group did excrete less dry fecal material compared to both other groups. Dietary fiber intake was negatively correlated with the total bile acid concentration. Probably, a decrease in dietary fiber intake results in higher fecal bile acid concentrations with advancing age.

From the findings of this study it is obvious that matching for age is important when case-control studies concerning the role of fecal bile acids in colorectal carcinogenesis are conducted.

## Introduction

Bacterial transformation of bile acids in the large bowel has been implicated in colorectal carcinogenesis [1]. Dietary habits can influence bile acid metabolism [2]. A high animal fat intake increases fecal bile acid concentration and excretion [3, 4] and is positively correlated with the incidence of colorectal cancer [5, 6]. A high dietary fiber intake may protect against this malignancy by accelerating intestinal transit, diluting colonic contents, binding bile acids and lowering colonic pH[7-12]. Elevated fecal bile acid concentrations in patients with large bowel

cancer or lesions predisposing to this tumour (e.g. adenomas) have been found by some [13, 14], but not all investigators [15-21]. Reasons for the discrepancy could be different selection procedures for both patients and controls, as well as differences in age, intestinal transit time and dietary composition between patients and controls. To gain more insight into these relationships we studied the influence of the latter parameters on fecal bile acid profiles in 34 healthy subjects.

## Materials and methods

### Subjects

Detailed data of all participating healthy volunteers of three different age groups with a mean age of 22, 48 and 67 years are presented in table 1. Subjects who had undergone cholecystectomy or major intestinal surgery, those with known liver, gallbladder or intestinal disease or suffering from diarrhoea, hyperlipoproteinaemia or diabetes mellitus and persons using drugs, especially antibiotics, laxatives and hypnotics were excluded. Alcohol consumption not exceeding about 10 g daily was allowed. Body weight was recorded three times during the study and proved to be stable in all subjects. Physical examination, tests for glucose and protein in the urine and blood analysis for ESR, liver and renal function and fasting serum lipids did reveal only a slightly higher serum cholesterol in middle aged persons compared to young adults. No occult blood and no parasites were

*Table 1 Data on healthy subjects of three different age groups\**

	Group A	Group B	Group C	A vs B (P)	B vs C (P)	C vs A (P)
No. of subjects	11	12	11			
Age (years)	21.8 ± 1.8	47.6 ± 1.4	67.3 ± 1.4	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
Range	21-27	39-53	57-73			
Male/female	5/6	4/8	6/5			
Weight (kg)	67.6 ± 1.5	71.7 ± 2.6	69.1 ± 3.7	ns	ns	ns
ΔIdeal weight(%) <sup>†</sup>	-13.0 ± 2.4	+ 1.0 ± 2.3	+10.8 ± 5.2	<0.01	ns	<0.01
Serum cholesterol (mmol/l)	4.58±0.29	5.29±0.17	5.38±0.32	<0.05	ns	ns
Serum triglycerides (mmol/l)	1.03±0.12	1.08±0.09	1.56±0.22	ns	ns	ns

\* Values represent mean ± SEM; ns = not significant

<sup>†</sup> % of ideal weight = [actual weight (kg)/length (cm) - 100] x 100.

detected in the stools of all volunteers. They were not screened however, for colon cancer or adenomas by radiology or endoscopy. Before participation in the study all subjects gave written consent for the study, which was approved by the Human Research Review Committee of our hospital.

### *Experimental design*

None of the subjects was hospitalized during the study. In order to establish the relationship between dietary composition, intestinal transit time and faecal bile acid profiles, all subjects adhered to a standardized diet for the whole study period of 14 days. During the initial visit average food intake was defined from interview data by the same dietician (HL). All participants checked the accuracy of their food intake using written instructions and weighing all food stuffs before consumption. After the necessary adjustments they adhered to this schedule. After keeping this diet for 7 days, stools were collected on day 8 and 9 for fecal bile acid measurements. Intestinal transit time, according to the method of Hinton et al [22] was measured with radiopaque pellets, which were administered on day 10. During another five days stools were collected for radiography to determine the number of pellets excreted. Transit time was calculated from the appearance of 80% of the pellets in the stool.

Composition of the dietary constituents was calculated from Dutch food tables.

### *Stool collection*

All subjects received a container with solid CO<sub>2</sub> (−70 °C) at their homes to collect stools for 2 days. Each of them did produce stools on each of the 2 days. After voiding, feces was immediately frozen in the container to prevent bacterial transformation of the bile acids.

Upon arrival at the laboratory the stools were diluted with a known amount of distilled water and homogenised with a mixer at a temperature of 80 °C to speed up thawing and to inactivate bile acid-converting enzymes. A sample (approx. 10 g) was frozen, lyophilized at −20 °C for 48 hr and stored. Fecal bile acids were measured separately in the two 24-hr specimens.

### *Fecal bile acid analysis*

A detailed description of the fecal bile acid analysis has been published elsewhere [23]. In short the procedure was as follows: Lyophilized feces (50 mg) were incubated overnight at 37 °C in a sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.7) with cholyglycine hydrolase to hydrolyse eventually present conjugated bile acids. Bile acids were subsequently extracted from particulate matter by refluxing in an alkaline milieu in methanol for 2 hr at boiling point.

Before refluxing, 7-ketodeoxycholic acid (7-KDCA) was added as an internal standard in order to correct for losses during the procedure. After extraction of

neutral steroids with petroleum ether, the bile acids were solvolysed and methylated with dimethoxypropane. The methylated bile acids were extracted with diethylether and converted into their trifluoroacetates. Bile acids were identified and quantitated by gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) using a Packard 430 gas chromatograph. Bile acids were identified by comparing the retention times to those of reference bile acids. The amount of bile acids was determined by dividing the peak area of the bile acid by that of the internal standard (7-KDCA) with correction for the response factor of the flame ionization detector for the individual bile acids. With this method the major fecal bile acids could be separated by GLC satisfactorily. However, isolithocholic acid (iLCA) is not separated from lithocholic acid (LCA) and therefore these bile acids are taken together and referred to as (i)LCA.

### Statistics

Data of all groups were evaluated with the Wilcoxon's rank sum test with confidence levels at 0.05 or 0.01. Linear regressions have been calculated by the method of least squares; their significance was obtained from Spearman's correlation coefficient  $r$ .

*Table 2 Dietary constituents and intestinal transit time in healthy subjects of three different age groups*

	Group A	Group B	Group C	A vs B (P)	B vs C (P)	C vs A (P)
Caloric intake (kCal day <sup>-1</sup> )	2329±170	1981±110	1842±101	ns	ns	<0.05
Total protein	94±8	82±4	75±5	ns	ns	ns
animal	64±6	60±4	56±4	ns	ns	ns
vegetable	30±3	22±3	19±1	<0.05	ns	<0.05
Total fat	81±8	77±5	79±3	ns	ns	ns
animal	62±8	63±5	64±4	ns	ns	ns
vegetable	19±4	14±3	15±4	ns	ns	ns
Carbohydrates	307±23	236±20	200±14	<0.05	ns	<0.05
Cholesterol	218±20	224±28	210±17	ns	ns	ns
Dietary fiber	37±3	33±3	22±2	ns	<0.05	<0.05
Intestinal transit time	51±9	78±11	46±7	ns	<0.05	ns

Values represent mean ± SEM. ns = not significant. Dietary constituents in g day<sup>-1</sup>, cholesterol in mg day<sup>-1</sup>. Intestinal transit time in hours.



## Results

As is shown in table 1 three groups of healthy subjects of different age groups were studied. The young adults had a significant lower ideal body weight compared to both other groups. In the group middle-aged persons more females were present, otherwise the groups were comparable.

The average daily food intake is shown in table 2. Total caloric intake decreased with advancing age and was significantly lower in elderly persons compared to young adults (-21%). The intake of both vegetable protein and carbohydrates was lower in the middle-aged (-27% and -23%) and elderly persons (-37% and -35%) compared to young adults. Dietary fiber intake was significantly lower in elderly persons compared to both middle-aged and young adults (-33% and -41% respectively).

A remarkable finding was the considerably longer intestinal transit time in the middle-aged persons (table 2) compared to both other groups, which was due to the fact that 4 subjects in this group had an intestinal transit time longer than 120 hr without having constipation subjectively.

*Table 3 Fecal bile acid concentration on two consecutive days in healthy subjects of three different age groups\**

	Group A		P	Group B		P	Group C		P
	day 8	day 9		day 8	day 9		day 8	day 9	
(i)lithocholic acid	4.92±0.58	5.17±0.82	ns	6.73±0.82	6.32±0.84	ns	7.90±0.80	8.85±1.29	ns
Isoodeoxycholic acid	0.86±0.25	0.66±0.15	ns	1.09±0.31	1.15±0.84	ns	1.41±0.20	1.49±0.29	ns
Deoxycholic Acid	7.91±0.76	7.58±1.00	ns	8.59±0.94	8.33±0.98	ns	10.77±1.35	11.41±1.87	ns
Total bile acids	15.73±1.22	15.17±1.75	ns	18.74±1.64	18.24±1.84	ns	22.18±1.94	24.03±3.26	ns

\* Values represent mean ± SEM. ns = not significant. Fecal bile acid concentration in  $\mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}$  dry weight

Fecal bile acid concentrations were measured on two consecutive days and as can be seen in table 3 no significant differences were present for the major bile acids in these separate 24 hr samples in the three groups studied. As no day-to-day variation is present in the measurement of the fecal bile acid concentrations, we concluded that in studies in which the dietary intake is controlled for, reliable data can be obtained by collection and pooling of one- or two-day stool samples. In table 4 the average concentration for the bile acids over the two days are shown in the sequence of their elution pattern on GLC. The concentration of the major bacterial degraded bile acids steadily increased with advancing age. The concentration of (i)LCA, isoDCA, DCA and 3 $\beta$ -hydroxy-12keto-5 $\beta$ -cholanolic acid in elderly persons was significantly higher (+68%, +73%, +47% and

*Table 4 Average fecal bile acid concentration, fecal weight and dry matter in healthy subjects of three different age groups\**

	Group A	Group B	Group C
(i)Lithocholic acid (LCA + tLCA)	4.96±0.65	6.53±0.82	8.38±1.02†
Isodeoxycholic acid	0.84±0.24	1.12±0.31	1.45±0.23†
Deoxycholic acid	7.53±0.78	8.47±0.93	11.10±1.57†
Chenodeoxycholic acid	0.30±0.15	0.12±0.83	0.23±0.07
Ursodeoxycholic acid	0.03±0.02	0.02±0.02	0.05±0.04
3β-OH-12keto-5β-cholanic acid	0.19±0.07	0.61±0.20	0.65±0.13†
Cholic acid	0.50±0.20	0.33±0.13	0.35±0.26
3α-OH-12keto-5β-cholanic acid	0.89±0.13	1.31±0.23	0.93±0.14
Total bile acids	15.25±1.34	18.50±1.71	23.13±2.51†
Fecal weight	144±19	145±20	106±13
Dry matter(%)	24.8±1.5	25.4±2.1	21.4±2.1
Dry fecal material	35.7±1.3	36.8±1.9	22.7±1.2‡

\* Values represent mean±SEM. Fecal bile acid concentration in  $\mu\text{mol.g}^{-1}$  dry weight. Fecal weight and dry fecal material in  $\text{g.day}^{-1}$

† <0.05 C vs A.

‡ <0.05 C vs A and B.

+242% respectively) compared to young adults. The same applied for the total fecal bile acid concentration(+52%). Concentrations in the middle-aged persons fell between those for young adults and elderly persons, but were not statistically different from these two groups. No data on bile acid excretion are presented, because without correction for fecal flow no reliable figures can be extrapolated from a 2-day stool collection [24].

In the total group of 34 subjects a negative correlation between the dietary fiber intake and the total fecal bile acid concentration ( $r=-0,37$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) was found. No correlation of fat (both animal and vegetable), carbohydrate intake and other dietary constituents with the fecal bile acid concentration was found. Moreover, intestinal transit time was not correlated with the fecal bile acid concentration.

## Discussion

Bile acids may play a role in colonic carcinogenesis. In several epidemiological studies the incidence of large bowel cancer is positively related to the fecal bile

acid concentration in the populations studied [30]. Populations with a high risk for the development of this tumor usually did consume more fat (or less fiber) than low-risk populations [29, 30]. Both the influence of a high fat and a low fiber intake could account for this effect. However, results from case-control studies are conflicting [13-21]. Hill et al [13] were the first to show a significant higher fecal bile acid concentration in patients with large bowel cancer compared to patients with other illnesses. These results were confirmed by Reddy and Wynder [14] but since then several investigators have not found these differences [15-21]. Moreover, Murray et al [17] found higher fecal bile acid concentrations in control patients (with minor non-gastrointestinal diseases) than in patients with colorectal cancer.

Several explanations are possible for the observed discrepancies. Differences in the composition of the colorectal cancer patient and control group could play a role. The controls varied from patients with nonmalignant bowel diseases or non-gastrointestinal diseases to healthy subjects. Differences in dietary intake of fat and fiber can, as already mentioned, influence fecal bile acid profiles. No data on dietary composition were stated in any of the case-control studies. A rapid transit of residue through the gut can decrease conversion of bile acids in the colon and increase fecal bile acid output. However, no data on intestinal transit time were given in these studies. Finally, we have shown that 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of cholic acid to deoxycholic acid is age-dependent, suggesting that with increasing age a considerable increase in secondary bile acid formation can occur [31]. Matching for age was not performed in four case-control studies [13-15, 21]. Our results in 3 groups of healthy volunteers of different ages show, that the concentration of the major fecal bile acids increased with advancing age. This increase seems to be the result of differences in dietary constituents among the three groups. As was expected total caloric intake decreased with age. Fat intake (both animal and vegetable) was comparable in the three groups. However, the ratio animal to vegetable fat increased with age. The total protein content did not change, but the ratio of animal to vegetable protein increased. Carbohydrate consumption decreased, which was mainly due to a lower intake of starch. The intake of dietary fiber was significantly lower in elderly persons, compared to both middle-aged and young persons.

The decrease in carbohydrate and fiber consumption, together with the increase in ratios animal to vegetable fat and protein was due to the fact that elderly subjects consumed less vegetable material (e.g. bread, potatoes) than younger adults. The consumption pattern of the middle-aged subjects was between the two other groups. Probably this was the reason that elderly persons excreted significantly less dry faecal material either of the other groups [7, 32]. These factors might well be responsible for their higher fecal bile acid concentrations. The negative correlation between the dietary fiber intake and the total bile acid concentration in all subjects gives support to the important role of fiber in the figures presented.

Despite their lower fiber intake, the intestinal transit time in elderly persons was not longer than in the young adults. The reason for this observation could be the fact, that the fiber intake in the elderly was high enough to maintain a normal colonic function. In this study the intestinal transit time was not a major factor in the fecal bile acid concentration and pattern.

In conclusion, this study shows an age dependent fecal bile acid concentration. A relationship with changing dietary habits with age is possible. No clear relationship with intestinal transit time does exist. These findings should be taken into account when studies concerning fecal bile acid patterns in populations or patients at risk for developing colonic cancer are conducted.

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# Inhibition of secondary bile acid formation in the large intestine by lactulose in healthy subjects of two different age groups

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# Inhibition of secondary bile acid formation in the large intestine by lactulose in healthy subjects of two different age groups

## Abstract

Secondary bile acids have been implicated in colonic carcinogenesis. Transformation of primary into secondary bile acids ( $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylation) in the large bowel is a pH-dependent process. Inhibition of this reaction could be achieved by lowering colonic pH. We, therefore, studied the effects of lactulose (a non-absorbable disaccharide), which is capable of acidifying colonic contents, on secondary bile acid metabolism. Because this metabolism is age dependent, lactulose was given ( $0,3 \text{ g.kg}^{-1}$  twice daily for 12 weeks) to nine middle-aged (age 31-54 years; mean 45.7) and ten elderly subjects (age 56-81 years; mean 66.4). Twice before and after 6 and 12 weeks lactulose administration, biliary and faecal bile acids, whole gut transit time, faecal weight and dry weight, and faecal pH were recorded. The concentration of (iso)lithocholic and deoxycholic acid in faeces was higher in elderly subjects ( $p < 0.05$ ), but the excretion was comparable. After lactulose the concentration and excretion of the major secondary bile acids decreased. The primary bile acid fraction rose from 5% before to more than 20% after lactulose ( $p < 0.05$ ). Faecal weight increased and faecal dry weight decreased, resulting in a higher faecal water output during lactulose. Whole gut transit time did not change. The faecal pH dropped after 6 ( $p < 0.05$ ) and further after 12 weeks lactulose ( $p < 0.05$ ). The percentage deoxycholic acid in bile was higher and cholic acid lower in elderly subjects ( $p < 0.05$ ). After lactulose the deoxycholic acid content decreased ( $p < 0.05$ ) and chenodeoxycholic acid content increased ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the whole group ( $n = 19$ ). The cholic acid content did not change.

The results show that lactulose can reduce secondary bile acid formation in the large bowel and that the effect is not mediated through acceleration of intestinal transit. Acidification of colonic contents seems to be the major factor in this reduction.

## Introduction

In the large intestine the primary bile acids cholic acid and chenodeoxycholic acid

are converted into the secondary bile acids deoxycholic and lithocholic acid by 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation [1]. These last compounds have been implicated in colorectal carcinogenesis [2]. The enzyme 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylase has a pH optimum of 7-8, and is produced by strictly anaerobic bacteria [3, 4]. It has been suggested that a high colonic pH (>7) could promote colorectal carcinogenesis, possibly by enhanced formation of (co)carcinogenic compounds, such as the secondary bile acids [5]. Lowering colonic pH could theoretically inhibit 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation and thus reduce the formation of secondary bile acids. Epidemiological studies have demonstrated, that populations at low risk for developing colonic cancer did have a lower faecal pH than those at higher risk [6, 7]. From one of these studies from South-Africa [7], it emerged, that the dietary fibre content of the diet may not be the major determinant of the lower faecal pH in the former group. However, consumption of a diet rich in dietary fibre can reduce faecal pH [8, 9]. The same holds true for lactulose [10]. Lactulose has also been shown to decrease the percentage of biliary deoxycholate in obese females [11]. It has laxative properties as well and the effect on bile acid metabolism could be mediated by this effect [12]. To gain more insight in the mechanisms, by which lactulose influences secondary bile acid metabolism, we studied the effect of lactulose on biliary and faecal bile acid composition, on gut transit time and on faecal pH in healthy volunteers. Because secondary bile acid metabolism is related to age [13, 14], we examined subjects in two different age groups, namely middle-aged and elderly persons.

## Subjects and methods

### *Subjects*

Nineteen healthy volunteers gave written consent for participation in the study, which was approved by the hospital Human Research Review Committee. Ten females and nine males of two age groups were studied. One group consisted of middle-aged subjects (4 male, 5 female) with a mean age of 45.7 years (range 31-54 years) and a second group of elderly subjects (5 male, 5 female) with a mean age of 66.4 years (range 56-81 years). The two age groups were of comparable body weight (mean 73.2 vs. 74.7 kg) and body mass index (mean 24.7 vs. 26.0 kgm<sup>-2</sup>). No subject had gastrointestinal complaints and none had undergone gastrointestinal or biliary surgery. A prerequisite for inclusion in the study were normal liver function tests, blood glucose and cholesterol-triglyceride serum levels. No laxatives or antibiotics had been used at least 6 weeks before entry into the study. Body weight was recorded three times during the study and proved to be stable. All subjects consumed their regular diet during the study period.

### *Design of the study*

After 2 weeks (baseline period), in which no lactulose was given and the subjects adhered to their regular diet, each subject received 0.3 g lactulose (Legendal®) per kg body weight, twice daily (total dose 24-48 g day<sup>-1</sup>) during 12 weeks. In none of the subjects did diarrhoea occur, although in most of them the consistency of the stool became somewhat softer and the defaecation frequency increased from an average of 1.4 to 1.7 times a day (not significant). Stools were collected for the measurement of the whole gut transit time, faecal pH and faecal bile acid analysis. After an overnight fast, bile was collected one day after the stool collection was completed.

All parameters were studied twice before, and after 6 and 12 weeks' lactulose administration. The reason for collecting data twice in the baseline period was to check the physiological variation with time.

### *Stool collection*

Stools were collected at home during 3 days in each weekly period (table I) and immediately after evacuation stored in a box containing dry ice (frozen CO<sub>2</sub>; -70 °C). On arrival at the laboratory the samples were radiographed and the radio-opaque pellets counted in order to calculate the whole gut transit time and then stored at -20 °C until analysis.

### *Whole gut transit time*

Transit time was measured by the single stool method with radio-opaque pellets according to Cummings and Wiggins [15].

### *Faecal pH*

The 3-day stool samples were pooled, weighted and homogenised with distilled water. A sample was taken and the pH measured with a pH electrode (Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark).

### *Faecal bile acid analysis*

After homogenization of the faeces a sample was freeze dried and, following extraction and derivatization, bile acids were analysed by gas-liquid chromatography as published previously [16]. In this assay lithocholic (LCA) and isolithocholic acid (iLCA) can not be separated and are referred to as (iso)LCA.

### *Biliary bile acid composition*

A fasting duodenal bile sample was obtained (2 ml) after gall-bladder stimulation by cholecystokinin (Kabi-Vitrum, Sweden) in a dose of 0.5 IDU kg body weight<sup>-1</sup> [17]. Bile samples were stored at -20 °C until analysis. Biliary bile acids were measured as described previously by gas-liquid chromatography [17].

### Statistics

Differences between the data before and during lactulose administration were evaluated by the paired Wilcoxon Rank sum test; differences between the age; groups by the non-paired Wilcoxon Rank sum test.

*Table 1 Major parameters before lactulose administration on 2 consecutive weeks in all subjects (n=19).*

	week - 2	week - 1
Faecal bile acids ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ dry weight)		
(i)LCA	$7.54 \pm 1.03^*$	$6.68 \pm 0.69$
DCA	$8.54 \pm 0.83$	$8.21 \pm 0.34$
Biliary bile acids (mol %)		
LCA	$3.1 \pm 0.6$	$3.1 \pm 0.6$
DCA	$21.9 \pm 2.5$	$21.2 \pm 2.4$
CDCA	$34.7 \pm 1.7$	$34.5 \pm 1.1$
CA	$40.6 \pm 2.7$	$41.6 \pm 2.1$
Stool weight ( $\text{g} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ )	$167 \pm 16$	$170 \pm 13$
Whole gut transit time (hrs)	$45 \pm 6$	$38 \pm 3$
Faecal pH	$7.01 \pm 0.07$	$6.99 \pm 0.10$

Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM. None of the data are significantly different.

LCA: lithocholic acid, DCA: deoxycholic acid, CDCA: chenodeoxycholic acid, CA: cholic acid, (i)LCA: lithocholic + isolithocholic acid.

### Results

No significant differences were found between the major parameters in the two consecutive weeks before lactulose was administered (table 1). Therefore, the results during lactulose administration were compared to the average of the data obtained in the weeks preceding the lactulose period.

#### *Stool analysis, whole gut transit time and stool pH*

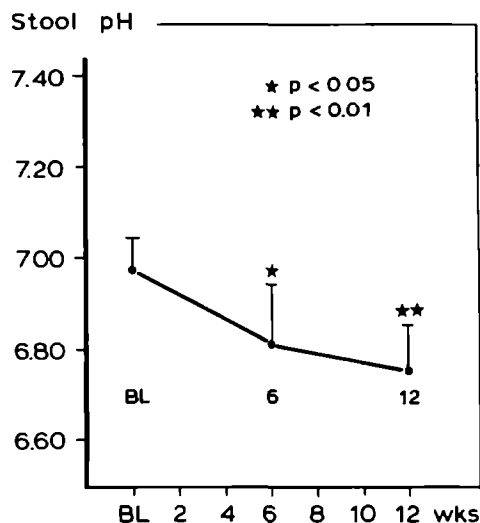
In nearly all subjects the faecal weight increased after lactulose administration and the faecal dry weight decreased, resulting in a higher faecal water output during lactulose (table 2). No differences were found between elderly and middle-aged subjects in this respect.

*Table 2 Stool parameters and intestinal transit time before and during lactulose in middle-aged (MS) and elderly (ES) subjects.*

		Before lactulose	During lactulose	
			6 weeks	12 weeks
Stool weight (g day <sup>-1</sup> )	MS	180±23†	217±31	241±41*
	ES	162±16	199±18	225±26
Stool dry weight (%)	MS	23.8±1.7	20.8±1.5	20.7±1.4*
	ES	22.0±1.2	18.9±1.3*	18.7±1.0*
Stool water (g day <sup>-1</sup> ) Output	MS	140±19	174±28	195±35*
	ES	117±10	171±18*	187±23*
Whole gut transit time MS (hrs)	MS	45.3±7.3	41.1±3.7	48.1±6.4
	ES	37.8±4.2	38.9±4.8	35.9±2.4

\*  $P < 0.05$  vs. before lactulose. Values between weeks 6 and 12 were not significantly different. Parameters between MS and ES were not significantly different before and during lactulose.

† Data are expressed as means ± SEM.



*Figure 1 Stool pH before (BL) and after 6 and 12 weeks' lactulose administration in 19 subjects.*

The whole gut transit time did not change during lactulose administration in both age groups (table 2) and none of the subjects developed diarrhoea. No significant differences in transit time between the middle-aged and elderly subjects were found before and during lactulose administration. As is shown in figure 1 the stool pH dropped significantly after 6 and even further after 12 weeks lactulose, and this effect was observed in both age groups.

#### *Faecal bile acid analysis*

The concentration of the major secondary bile acids in elderly subjects was significantly higher, due to the lower weight of dry faecal material in the elderly persons (table 3). However, no significant differences were present in the excretion of bile acids before lactulose administration between middle-aged and elderly subjects.

In both middle and elderly aged subjects the concentration and excretion of the major secondary bile acids decreased during lactulose, while the primary bile

*Table 3 Faecal bile acid pattern before and during lactulose administration in middle-aged (MS) and elderly subjects (ES)*

Bile acid	Before lactulose		During lactulose			
			6 weeks		12 weeks	
	MS	ES	MS	ES	MS	ES
Concentration ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ dry weight)						
(i)LCA	5.39 $\pm$ 0.60†	8.52 $\pm$ 1.30	3.56 $\pm$ 0.66	5.71 $\pm$ 1.05	3.31 $\pm$ 0.50	5.42 $\pm$ 1.35
iDCA	0.93 $\pm$ 0.21	1.74 $\pm$ 0.30	0.79 $\pm$ 0.28	1.46 $\pm$ 0.78	0.80 $\pm$ 0.29	0.95 $\pm$ 0.23
DCA	6.93 $\pm$ 0.53	9.76 $\pm$ 0.87	4.88 $\pm$ 0.78	7.94 $\pm$ 0.99	4.63 $\pm$ 0.67	6.83 $\pm$ 1.09
CDCA	0.25 $\pm$ 0.06	0.21 $\pm$ 0.09	0.74 $\pm$ 0.34	0.41 $\pm$ 0.10	0.60 $\pm$ 0.25	0.76 $\pm$ 0.34
CA	0.57 $\pm$ 0.30	0.51 $\pm$ 0.34	1.69 $\pm$ 0.81	0.50 $\pm$ 0.06	1.71 $\pm$ 0.68	1.52 $\pm$ 0.95
Excretion ( $\mu\text{mol day}^{-1}$ )						
(i)LCA	214 $\pm$ 32	277 $\pm$ 37	151 $\pm$ 35	221 $\pm$ 50	142 $\pm$ 26	187 $\pm$ 31
iDCA	38 $\pm$ 10	56 $\pm$ 9	36 $\pm$ 13	50 $\pm$ 14	43 $\pm$ 20	33 $\pm$ 7
DCA	274 $\pm$ 31	323 $\pm$ 42	203 $\pm$ 40	309 $\pm$ 59	197 $\pm$ 31	251 $\pm$ 34
CDCA	11 $\pm$ 3	7 $\pm$ 3	34 $\pm$ 17	14 $\pm$ 3	32 $\pm$ 17	33 $\pm$ 16
CA	27 $\pm$ 15	18 $\pm$ 12	75 $\pm$ 39	16 $\pm$ 8	87 $\pm$ 45	70 $\pm$ 44
PBA (%)	6.7	3.6	21.8	4.9	23.7	17.9

P < 0.05 MS vs ES; P < 0.05 before lactulose.

† Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SFM.

(i)LCA: lithocholic + isolithocholic acid, iDCA: isodoxycholic acid, DCA: deoxycholic acid, CDCA: chenodeoxycholic acid, CA: cholic acid, PBA(%): fraction primary bile acids

acids tended to rise and after 12 weeks lactulose the primary bile acids came to represent 23.7% ( $p < 0.05$ ) and 17.9% ( $p < 0.05$ ) of the total bile acid excretion in middle-aged and elderly subjects respectively (table 3). The values did not decrease further after 12 weeks, compared to 6 weeks. No significant differences in concentration and excretion between the elderly and middle-aged subjects were observed during lactulose administration.

#### *Biliary bile acid composition*

The biliary bile acid composition before lactulose administration is shown in table 4. Elderly persons had significantly more deoxycholic acid (DCA) and less cholic acid (CA) in their bile. During lactulose administration the DCA content decreased significantly in the total group of 19 subjects after 6 and 12 weeks. In contrast, the chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA) content increased significantly after 6 and 12 weeks. The molar percentage of CA did not change (fig. 2).

When the two age groups were analysed separately, it was shown that in elderly subjects the DCA content decreased significantly only after 6 weeks (mean 22.2% vs 26.0%;  $p < 0.05$ ) since despite the lower content after 12 weeks (mean 18.1% vs 26.0%;  $p = 0.10$ ), the decrease of the biliary DCA content was observed

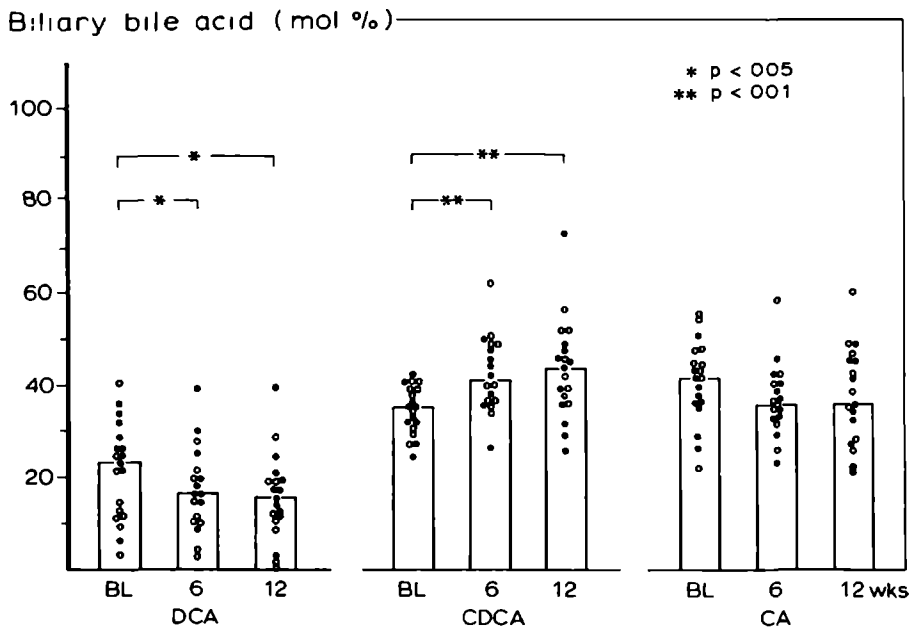


Figure 2 Biliary bile acid composition in middle aged (○) and elderly subjects (●), before lactulose (BL) and during lactulose administration (weeks 6 and 12). For abbreviations see table 4.

*Table 4 Baseline biliary bile acid composition (average of week - 2 and - 1, in mol%) in middle-aged (n=9) and elderly (n=10) subjects.*

	Middle-aged subjects	Elderly subjects
LCA	2.3±0.2	3.7±0.8
DCA	17.1±3.7	26.0±2.6*
CDCA	35.5±1.7	33.7±3.8
CA	44.7±3.2	37.3±2.2*

\* P<0.05.

† Data expressed as means ± SEM.

LCA: lithocholic acid, DCA: deoxycholic acid, CDCA: chenodeoxycholic acid, CA: cholic acid.

only in eight of the ten subjects. In contrast, the CDCA content increased after 6 (mean 41.3% vs 33.7%;  $p<0.01$ ) and 12 weeks (mean 42.7% vs 33.7%;  $p<0.05$ ). In the middle-aged subjects the DCA content did not change after 6 weeks (mean 13.7% vs 17.1%;  $p=0.14$ ) and after 12 weeks (mean 13.4% vs 17.1%;  $p=0.08$ ). In this group in eight of ten subjects the DCA content in bile decreased after 12 weeks. The CDCA content in this group increased after 6 weeks (mean 44.1% vs 35.5%;  $p=0.07$ ) but more so after 12 weeks (mean 44.7% vs 35.5%;  $p<0.05$ ). In both groups the CA content of bile did not change.

## Discussion

This study shows that the formation of secondary bile acids in the large intestine can be reduced by the non-absorbable disaccharide lactulose. The evidence for this conclusion is based both on the decreased concentration and excretion of the major secondary bile acids in the stool, and on the decreased proportion of deoxycholic acid in bile. It confirms and extends the previous study of Thornton and Heaton in obese females [11]. The biliary bile acid composition before lactulose administration is in accordance with recent reported data in the literature [18]. The observed difference in DCA content in bile between middle-aged and elderly subjects could be explained by the age dependence of the CA and DCA metabolism, as described previously [13, 18]. Whether the higher DCA and lower CA content in bile in elderly subjects is the consequence of a decreased CA pool size with age [18] or a higher fractional turnover rate of CA and greater DCA input rate with age [13] can not be established from these data, since no kinetic experiments were carried out.

The mechanism by which the reduction of secondary bile acid formation during



lactulose takes place is not completely understood, but the results from this study clearly show that the intestinal transit time (mouth to anus transit) is not reduced during lactulose administration and therefore does not play an important role. It can not be ruled out, however, that lactulose exerts an effect on small bowel transit, as was shown previously [19, 20]. The acceleration of the small intestinal transit time is probably caused by osmotic inhibition of fluid absorption. It has been shown that administration of mannitol (also a poorly absorbed sugar) can decrease small bowel transit time and increase the rate of bile salt excretion [21]. However, the dose (120 g mannitol) used in that study caused diarrhoea and decreased the intestinal transit time (mouth to anus) from 25 to 5 hours. Thus, these results are not comparable to our study, in which no diarrhoea occurred in any of the subjects, probably due to the much lower dose of lactulose. Furthermore, in the study of Read et al [20] no change in whole gut transit and only a moderate decrease of small bowel transit was found during the administration of 40-g lactulose.

A reasonable explanation for the reduction of the secondary bile acid formation in the large bowel is the inhibition of the enzyme  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylase. This enzyme is responsible for the conversion of the primary into the secondary bile acids. The pH optimum is between 7 and 8. Lactulose is fermented and converted into short chain fatty acids and lactate in the proximal part of the large bowel and can reduce intracolonic pH [10, 22]. Since the acidification of colonic contents by lactulose particularly takes place in the proximal part of the large bowel [10], and absorption of short chain fatty acids and secretion of bicarbonate occurs towards the distal part, the real pH change in the proximal part might even have been greater than is suggested from the stool pH in this study. This could have resulted in an inhibition of the  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylation and thus in an decreased formation of secondary bile acids. The effect is not always accomplished since in some of our individuals the percentage of deoxycholic acid in bile did not fall. It is possible that in different subjects lactulose is metabolized in different ways [22].

Concomitant with the decrease in biliary DCA, the content of CDCA increased. This finding could be explained by several mechanisms. Originally it was hypothesized that DCA selectively inhibits CDCA synthesis and that reduced formation or absorption of DCA will inhibit the negative feedback on the CDCA synthesis [23]. Others have questioned this hypothesis and it has also been suggested that competition for intestinal transport explains the reciprocal relation between DCA and CDCA in bile [24]. From our data no conclusions can be drawn, since no bile acid kinetic studies were carried out. In the past we have only been able to show an association between a high DCA absorption and low proportion of CDCA in bile in elderly subjects [25].

Whether the effect of lactulose on secondary bile acid metabolism can be reproduced by more natural dietary constituents like fibre remains to be established.

Recently it was shown that different fibre components have different effects on bile salt metabolism [26]. Pectin possibly enhances the formation of secondary bile acids, while cellulose lowers it. Lignin seems to have no effect. Dietary fibre in the form of wheat bran or concentrated wheat fibre has been shown to cause variable changes in secondary bile acid metabolism [27, 28]. The ultimate goal in this respect should be an inhibition of colonic carcinogenesis by lowering colonic secondary bile acid formation. A large prospective dietary intervention trial in subjects at high risk for developing colonic cancer, e.g. patients with adenomatous polyps, might give more insight in this problem.

In conclusion, this study shows that lactulose inhibits secondary bile acid formation in the large intestine. The effect is probably mediated through acidification of colonic contents, thereby reducing  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids.

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# The effect of a natural high fiber diet on fecal and biliary bile acids, fecal pH and whole gut transit time in man. A controlled study.

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# The effect of a natural high fiber diet on fecal and biliary bile acids, fecal pH and whole gut transit time in man.

## A controlled study.

### Abstract

Colonic cancer is associated with a high fat and low fiber consumption. The mechanisms by which these dietary factors exert their action are not well known, but an effect through secondary bile acids has been implicated.

We therefore investigated the effect of a natural high fiber diet on secondary bile acid formation in twelve healthy subjects on a habitual low fiber diet (experimental group). Fat consumption was kept stable. A control group of ten persons consumed their habitual high fiber diet. Parameters studied were fecal and biliary bile acid composition, fecal wet and dry weight, fecal pH and whole gut transit time.

Changes in the parameters after 6 and 10 weeks of high fiber consumption versus the initial values in the experimental group were compared to changes in the control group during the same period.

The experimental group showed a significantly greater reduction in the concentration of the major secondary bile acids after 6 and 10 weeks than the control group. The fecal bile acid excretion, however, did not change. The secondary bile acid fraction was not altered. The change in the whole gut transit time in the experimental group after 6 and 10 weeks did not differ from that in the control group. In contrast, the fecal pH showed a significantly greater decline in the experimental than in the control group. Biliary deoxycholic acid (DCA) was reduced and biliary cholic acid (CA) increased after 6 weeks in the experimental group, compared to the change in the control group; however, after 10 weeks biliary DCA increased and biliary CA returned to the baseline value.

This investigation shows that in a controlled study the fecal secondary bile acid concentration can be reduced on a natural high fiber diet. This effect is mediated through an increase in stool wet and dry weight. The 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids is probably not or only transiently inhibited.

## Introduction

Colonic cancer is associated with a high dietary fat and low fiber intake (1-5). Epidemiologic studies cannot clarify whether this association is causal and, if so, by which mechanisms these dietary factors exert their action. A high fat consumption can increase bile acid excretion (6), although results have been controversial (7). Bacterially degraded bile acids in the large intestine like deoxycholic acid (DCA) and lithocholic acid (LCA) can act as tumor promoters in chemically induced carcinogenesis in rats (8-10) and can influence colonic mucosal proliferation (11). A high dietary fiber intake might conceivably protect against colonic carcinogenesis by accelerating intestinal transit, diluting colonic contents and reducing colonic pH (5, 12-15).

The influence of dietary fiber on bile acid metabolism has been studied in several ways. In most studies either biliary bile acid composition or fecal bile acids were measured. Supplementation with bran generally reduced biliary DCA (16-24), although in two studies no effect was observed (21, 22). When separate components of dietary fiber were studied, different effects were observed. Pectin had no effect on biliary bile acids in one (25), but reduced biliary DCA by 40% in another study (26). Cellulose reduced the biliary DCA content and lignin had no effect (26). A natural high fiber diet caused a modest decrease in biliary DCA and an increase in cholic acid (CA) content in gallstone patients (27).

Bran was used in most investigations in which fecal bile acid measurements were performed. In general it caused a decrease in the concentration of bile acids and an unchanged or modestly increased excretion (28-34). The ratio secondary: primary fecal bile acids did not change in studies measuring individual bile acids.

If dietary fiber does play a protective role in colonic carcinogenesis, then the most physiologic way to gain benefit is to increase the natural fiber content of a common average Western diet.

Few data are available on simultaneous measurement of biliary and fecal bile acid profiles in subjects in whom the diet was enriched with fibers from various sources. Moreover, an increase in fiber intake is often accompanied by a decrease in dietary fat consumption, which can influence bile acid metabolism as well (6, 7). Moreover, it is not clear, whether changes in bile acid metabolism occur on a stable nutrient consumption. Therefore a controlled study was performed in which healthy volunteers consuming a low fiber diet increased their fiber intake from various sources during 10 weeks. Simultaneously, a control group consumed their habitual high fiber diet for the same period. Fecal and biliary acids were measured as were whole gut transit time and fecal pH.



## Subjects and methods

### *Design, subjects and statistics*

Healthy subjects were recruited through advertisements in local newspapers. A detailed dietary history was taken and individual food consumption patterns were calculated. Subjects were then divided into a control group and an experimental group. The control group consisted of 10 subjects with a habitual fiber intake of more than 3.5 g/MJ ( $\pm 30$  g/day). They followed their habitual diet for the full 14 weeks of the study. The experimental group consisted of 12 subjects with a low habitual fiber intake (less than 3 g/MJ;  $\pm 20$  g/day). They maintained this habitual low fiber diet for a baseline period of 4 weeks. They were then switched to a high-fiber diet (planned fiber intake 4g/MJ) for the next 10 weeks. Measurements were made in weeks -3 and -1, and again in weeks +6 and +10. For each subject, baseline (initial) values (mean of weeks -3 and -1) were subtracted from values obtained in weeks 6 and 10 to produce individual changes. In the control group values in week -1 were subtracted from values in weeks 6 and 10. The mean change in the experimental group was compared to the mean change in

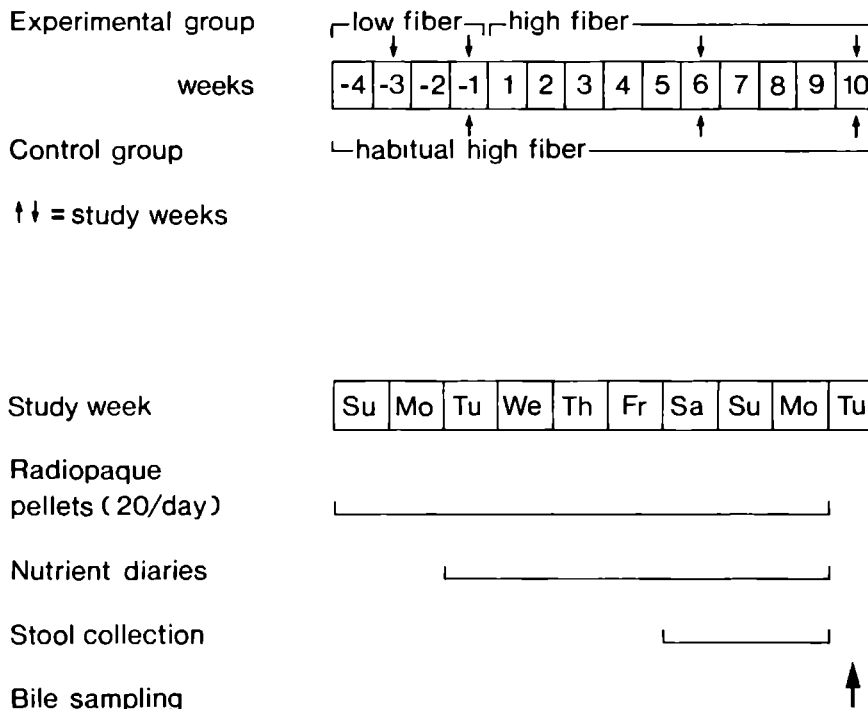


Figure 1 Study-design.

the control group using the Wilcoxon rank sum test (figure 1). Both groups were comparable as to age, sex and relative body weight (table I).

None of the subjects had gastrointestinal complaints or had undergone gastrointestinal or biliary surgery. Physical findings were normal in all. Liver function tests, blood glucose, and cholesterol/triglyceride levels were within the normal range. No laxatives or antibiotics had been used at least 6 weeks before entry into the study.

The study was approved by the hospital Human Research Review Committee and all subjects gave informed written consent.

*Table I Baseline data on the subjects studied*

	Experimental group	Control group
Number (women/men)	12 (6/6)	10 (5/5)
Age	49.1±4.1	53.9±1.8
Range	33–71	41–62
Weight	71.2±3.3	74.5±3.3
Height	1.72±0.02	1.71±0.03
Body mass index (kg.m <sup>-2</sup> )	24.0±1.0	25.4±0.6

Values represent means ± SEM. No differences between experimental and control group.

### *Diets*

The increase in fiber intake in the experimental group was derived from cereals, fruit and vegetables. Compliance in individual food intake was checked regularly by visiting the subjects at home and discussing possible problems with them. All subjects consumed a common average Dutch diet. During the study period the nature and amount of the daily food intake was noted in a specially designed diary for 7 consecutive days (35). In the control group this was done 3 times (in weeks -1, 6 and 10) and in the experimental group twice during the low fiber period (weeks -3 and -1) and after 6 and 10 weeks on a high fiber diet (see figure 1). Individual food consumption data from the diary were calculated using the National Nutrient Data Base NEVO (36). Care was taken to keep the intake of all nutrients constant with the exception of dietary fiber in the experimental group.

### *Parameters studied*

Parameters studied included stool wet and dry weight, intestinal transit time, fecal pH, total and individual fecal bile acid concentrations and excretion and

biliary bile acid composition. Parameters were studied during the weeks that nutrient diaries were kept at home.

#### *Whole gut transit time and faecal flow correction*

On 6 days before and also during stool collection 20 radiopaque pellets were given daily in order to correct for variation in fecal flow (37). On 2 days before stool collection pellets of a different size and shape were given to calculate the whole gut transit time, according to Cummings and Wiggins (38).

#### *Stool collection*

Stools were collected at home during 3 days at the end of the 3 (control group) or 4 (experimental group) study weeks. After evacuation feces was immediately frozen in a container with dry ice (frozen CO<sub>2</sub>; -70 °C). On arrival at the laboratory samples were radiographed and radiopaque pellets counted to calculate the whole gut transit time. The total number of pellets ingested in 3 days (60) was divided by the number of pellets excreted, and the amount of fecal material was multiplied by this value to correct for fecal flow. Samples were then stored at -20 °C until analysis.

#### *Fecal pH*

The 3 day stool samples were pooled, weighed and homogenized with distilled water. A sample was taken and the pH measured with a pH electrode (Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark).

#### *Fecal bile acid analysis*

After homogenization of the feces a sample was freeze-dried and after extraction, bile acids were measured by gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) as described previously (39). A modification was included because the individual bile acids were separated on a capillary column (CP Sil 19 CB, Chrompack, Middelburg, The Netherlands). Bile acids were derivatized and injected as trimethylsilyl ethers. Hyodeoxycholic acid was used as internal standard. An automatic solid injection device (Packard Instruments, Delft, The Netherlands) was used to bring the bile acid derivatives on the column. Helium was used as carrier gas. Injection and flame ionization temperature were 300 °C. A computerized increment of column temperature from 150 ° to 300 °C was used to separate the bile acids. Bile acids were eluted at 275 °C. In this assay all major bile acids, including the iso-bile acids, can be separated completely.

#### *Biliary bile acid analysis*

A fasting duodenal bile sample was obtained at the end of each study week after gallbladder contraction had been induced with cholecystokinin in a dose of 0.5

IDU/kg/body weight. Bile samples were stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until analysis and measured on the same capillary column as the fecal bile acids with 7-keto-deoxycholic acid as internal standard. Bile acids were derivatized and injected as trimethylsilyl ethers. Injection and flame ionization temperature were  $300^{\circ}\text{C}$ . To separate the bile acids an increment of column temperature from  $200^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $300^{\circ}\text{C}$  was used. Bile acids were eluted at  $280^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

## Results

Since no differences were found in the experimental group for all parameters in

*Table II Nutrient intake and body weight (means  $\pm$  SEM) in the experimental and in the control group.*

	Experimental group (n=12)			Control group (n=10)		
	Low fiber diet	High fiber diet		Habitual high fiber diet		
	initial	6 weeks	10	initial	6 weeks	10
Energy (MJ/day)	8.8 $\pm$ 0.7	9.4 $\pm$ 0.6	9.1 $\pm$ 0.6	9.2 $\pm$ 0.5	9.0 $\pm$ 0.7	9.1 $\pm$ 0.7
Dietary fiber g/MJ	2.3 $\pm$ 0.2	3.7 $\pm$ 0.2	3.8 $\pm$ 0.3	3.6 $\pm$ 0.2	3.5 $\pm$ 0.3	3.5 $\pm$ 0.3
g/day	20.3 $\pm$ 1.7	34.9 $\pm$ 2.9	34.6 $\pm$ 2.8	32.3 $\pm$ 2.5	30.5 $\pm$ 2.3	31.1 $\pm$ 2.9
% fibers from vegetabl./fruit	66 $\pm$ 3	58 $\pm$ 3	57 $\pm$ 3	61 $\pm$ 3	58 $\pm$ 3	55 $\pm$ 3
Cholesterol (mg/day)	349 $\pm$ 23	291 $\pm$ 23	267 $\pm$ 23	310 $\pm$ 23	249 $\pm$ 24	295 $\pm$ 38
Fat (energy %)	37 $\pm$ 2	37 $\pm$ 1	35 $\pm$ 2	37 $\pm$ 1	37 $\pm$ 1	38 $\pm$ 2
Carbohydrates (energy %)	43 $\pm$ 2	45 $\pm$ 2	46 $\pm$ 2	45 $\pm$ 2	44 $\pm$ 2	46 $\pm$ 2
Protein (energy %)	15 $\pm$ 1	14 $\pm$ 1	15 $\pm$ 1	15 $\pm$ 1	16 $\pm$ 1	15 $\pm$ 1
Alcohol (energy %)	5 $\pm$ 1	5 $\pm$ 2	5 $\pm$ 1	4 $\pm$ 1	4 $\pm$ 1	3 $\pm$ 1
Body weight (kg)	71.2 $\pm$ 11.3	71.2 $\pm$ 11.9	72.1 $\pm$ 12.3	74.5 $\pm$ 10.3	74.4 $\pm$ 10.4	75.4 $\pm$ 11.0

the two weeks on the low fiber diet (weeks -3 and -1), the values were averaged and results after 6 and 10 weeks of high fiber intake compared to this average value, which will be referred to as initial value.

#### *Dietary assessment*

In the control group a stable dietary intake of all food items was achieved, as shown in table II. The dietary fiber intake was fixed at about 3.5 g/MJ. This was the fiber consumption to which the subjects were accustomed. Body weight proved to be stable during the study period.

In the experimental group a slight increase in energy intake during the high fiber period occurred. The dietary fiber intake rose from a mean of 2.3 g/MJ to 3.7 g/MJ after 6 and to 3.8 g/MJ after 10 weeks. In accordance with the experimental design, more than half of the dietary fiber was derived from vegetables and fruit. The intake of all other nutrients proved to be stable. Body weight did not change during the high fiber period (table II).

*Table IIIA Fecal wet and dry weight (g/day) (means  $\pm$  SEM)*

	Experimental group (n=12)		Control group (n=10)	
	Fecal wet weight	Fecal dry weight	Fecal wet weight	Fecal dry weight
Initial <sup>1)</sup>	106 $\pm$ 12	26.9 $\pm$ 1.7	174 $\pm$ 22	36.9 $\pm$ 2.6
Week 6	157 $\pm$ 13	37.2 $\pm$ 2.6	202 $\pm$ 27	42.3 $\pm$ 3.7
Change after 6 wks	+ 52 $\pm$ 13	+10.2 $\pm$ 2.1	+ 27 $\pm$ 24	+ 5.3 $\pm$ 2.5
Week 10	156 $\pm$ 11	36.2 $\pm$ 2.1	163 $\pm$ 18	36.4 $\pm$ 3.0
Change after 10 wks	+ 51 $\pm$ 11	+ 9.3 $\pm$ 7.4	- 11 $\pm$ 14	- 0.5 $\pm$ 2.3

*Table IIIB Whole gut transit time (hrs) and fecal pH (means  $\pm$  SEM)*

	Whole gut transit time	Fecal pH	Whole gut transit time	Fecal pH
Initial <sup>1)</sup>	46.6 $\pm$ 3.6	6.92 $\pm$ 0.11	44.1 $\pm$ 5.7	6.86 $\pm$ 0.07
Week 6	44.2 $\pm$ 3.3	6.80 $\pm$ 0.09	44.8 $\pm$ 4.9	6.84 $\pm$ 0.16
Change after 6 wks	- 2.4 $\pm$ 4.0	-0.12 $\pm$ 0.08	+ 0.7 $\pm$ 0.8	-0.01 $\pm$ 0.13
Week 10	38.9 $\pm$ 3.6	6.70 $\pm$ 0.10	46.7 $\pm$ 5.6	6.88 $\pm$ 0.14
Change after 10 wks	- 7.7 $\pm$ 3.1	-0.21 $\pm$ 0.16	+ 2.6 $\pm$ 3.1	+0.02 $\pm$ 0.09

- 1) mean of wk-3/-1 in experimental group and wk-1 in control group significantly different from change in control group (p<0.05)

### *Stool weight, whole gut transit time and fecal pH*

Daily stool wet and dry weight, whole gut transit time and fecal pH proved to be stable in the control group throughout the study period as shown in table III A and B.

In the experimental group the decrease in fecal pH was significant after 10 weeks on the fiber enriched diet compared to the changes in the control group. The same applies to the increase in stool weight. The whole gut transit time decreased in the experimental group, but the changes in both groups were not significantly different (table III A and B).

*Table IV Individual and total secondary bile acid concentration and daily bile acid excretion (means  $\pm$  SEM) in healthy volunteers consuming diets of different fiber content.*

Bile acid concentration ( $\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry weight)	Experimental group (n=12)				Control group (n=10)			
	LCA	isoLCA	DCA	isoDCA	LCA	isoLCA	DCA	isoDCA
Initial <sup>1)</sup>	7.08 $\pm$ 0.55	3.55 $\pm$ 0.34	10.70 $\pm$ 1.21	3.51 $\pm$ 0.60	4.47 $\pm$ 0.30	2.11 $\pm$ 0.18	8.80 $\pm$ 0.91	2.33 $\pm$ 0.74
Week 6	4.62 $\pm$ 0.52	2.50 $\pm$ 0.25	8.07 $\pm$ 1.16	2.06 $\pm$ 0.33	5.10 $\pm$ 0.29	2.67 $\pm$ 0.44	10.12 $\pm$ 0.79	2.57 $\pm$ 0.61
Change after 6 wks	-2.5 $\pm$ 0.2	-1.1 $\pm$ 0.2	2.6 $\pm$ 0.7	-1.4 $\pm$ 0.4	+0.6 $\pm$ 0.3	+0.5 $\pm$ 0.4	+1.3 $\pm$ 0.6	+0.3 $\pm$ 0.5
Week 10	4.63 $\pm$ 0.46	2.43 $\pm$ 0.23	8.18 $\pm$ 0.94	2.12 $\pm$ 0.36	5.14 $\pm$ 0.36	2.20 $\pm$ 0.22	9.32 $\pm$ 0.99	2.34 $\pm$ 0.66
Change after 10 wks	-2.5 $\pm$ 0.3	-1.1 $\pm$ 0.3	2.5 $\pm$ 0.6	-1.4 $\pm$ 0.3	+0.7 $\pm$ 0.3	+0.1 $\pm$ 0.1	+0.5 $\pm$ 0.8	+0.0 $\pm$ 0.3

Secondary bile acid concentration and total bile acid excretion (nmol/day)	Experimental group (n=12)				Control group (n=10)			
	$\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry weight	$\mu\text{mol/g}$ wet weight	total bile acid excretion	% secon- dary bile acids	$\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry weight	$\mu\text{mol/g}$ wet weight	total bile acid excretion	% secon- dary bile acids
Initial <sup>1)</sup>	24.8 $\pm$ 2.1	6.6 $\pm$ 0.6	0.83 $\pm$ 0.08	97.5 $\pm$ 0.6	17.7 $\pm$ 1.8	4.0 $\pm$ 0.5	0.72 $\pm$ 0.06	97.3 $\pm$ 1.0
Week 6	17.3 $\pm$ 1.8	4.2 $\pm$ 0.5	0.81 $\pm$ 0.09	96.9 $\pm$ 1.4	20.5 $\pm$ 1.2	4.5 $\pm$ 0.3	0.93 $\pm$ 0.14	95.3 $\pm$ 2.1
Change after 6 wks	-7.5 $\pm$ 0.9	-2.4 $\pm$ 0.4	-0.02 $\pm$ 0.08	-0.6 $\pm$ 1.1	+2.8 $\pm$ 0.4	+0.5 $\pm$ 0.1	+0.21 $\pm$ 0.11	-2.0 $\pm$ 1.5
Week 10	17.4 $\pm$ 0.5	4.1 $\pm$ 0.4	0.74 $\pm$ 0.09	95.5 $\pm$ 2.0	19.0 $\pm$ 1.8	4.4 $\pm$ 0.4	0.91 $\pm$ 0.16	95.2 $\pm$ 1.5
Change after 10 wks	-7.4 $\pm$ 1.1	-2.5 $\pm$ 0.5	-0.09 $\pm$ 0.07	-2.0 $\pm$ 1.6	+1.3 $\pm$ 0.3	+0.4 $\pm$ 0.1	+0.19 $\pm$ 0.14	-2.1 $\pm$ 1.3

1) mean of wk 3/-1 in experimental group and wk-1 in control group

significantly different from change in control group ( $p < 0.05$ )

(iso)LCA (iso)lithocholic acid, (iso)DCA (iso)deoxycholic acid

### *Fecal bile acid analysis*

The secondary bile acid concentration (both as  $\mu\text{mol/g}$  dry weight and  $\mu\text{mol/g}$  wet weight) in the control group showed only minor variations during the study (table IV). The total amount of fecal bile acids excreted increased slightly after 6 weeks and stabilized by week 10. In the individual bile acid pattern, no major changes were observed.

In the experimental group the decrease in secondary bile acid concentration was significant by 6 and 10 weeks, compared to the changes in the control group. The total bile acid excretion did not change. The data on individual bile acid concentrations indicate that the decrease after 6 and 10 weeks was significant, compared to changes in the control group. The secondary bile acid fraction did not change in either group (table IV).

*Table V Molar percentage of biliary bile acids (means  $\pm$  SEM) in healthy volunteers consuming diets of different fiber content*

Bile acid	Experimental group (n=12)				Control group (n=10)			
	LCA	DCA	CDCA	CA	LCA	DCA	CDCA	CA
Initial <sup>1)</sup>	0.3 $\pm$ 0.3	27.0 $\pm$ 2.4	41.7 $\pm$ 1.7	30.9 $\pm$ 3.2	1.0 $\pm$ 0.3	20.2 $\pm$ 3.6	41.6 $\pm$ 4.2	37.2 $\pm$ 4.3
Week 6	0.2 $\pm$ 0.1	22.9 $\pm$ 2.9	38.7 $\pm$ 1.8	38.1 $\pm$ 3.1	0.8 $\pm$ 0.3	23.6 $\pm$ 3.9	41.4 $\pm$ 3.7	34.2 $\pm$ 4.6
Change after 6 wks	-0.1 $\pm$ 0.1	-4.1 $\pm$ 1.8	-3.0 $\pm$ 1.2	+7.2 $\pm$ 2.1	-0.2 $\pm$ 0.2	+3.4 $\pm$ 3.1	-0.2 $\pm$ 2.5	-2.9 $\pm$ 1.7
Week 10	0.2 $\pm$ 0.1	24.9 $\pm$ 3.4	43.4 $\pm$ 2.5	31.5 $\pm$ 3.3	0.9 $\pm$ 0.3	22.8 $\pm$ 4.7	41.5 $\pm$ 4.8	34.8 $\pm$ 5.4
Change after 10wks	-0.1 $\pm$ 0.1	-2.1 $\pm$ 2.1	+1.6 $\pm$ 2.4	+0.6 $\pm$ 2.7	-0.1 $\pm$ 0.1	+2.4 $\pm$ 2.3	-0.1 $\pm$ 3.1	-2.4 $\pm$ 2.5

1) mean of wk-3/-1 in experimental group and wk-1 in control group

<sup>2)</sup> significantly different from change in control group ( $p < 0.05$ )

For abbreviations see text.

### *Biliary bile acid composition*

As shown in table V in the experimental group the biliary DCA percentage decreased significantly after 6 weeks, compared to the change in the control group, but not after 10 weeks. The CA content increased significantly after 6 weeks compared to the control group, but at 10 weeks the CA content had returned to the baseline level.

There were no significant differences as to the changes in CDCA content in bile after 6 and 10 weeks between both groups (table V).

## Discussion

It has been suggested that the putative protective effect of dietary fiber against colonic carcinogenesis might partly be explained by its effect on bile acid metabolism. However, the reported effects are variable and complex (12). Possible reasons are that different kinds of fiber or components of fiber were tested in various kinds of subjects for various lengths of time. Rarely, control groups in which no modifications of diet were introduced, were analysed simultaneously. Fiber is present in many food substances (like wheat, fruit and vegetables) and consists of many different components (like celluloses, hemi-celluloses, pectin, lignin), which can exert opposite effects on bile acid metabolism (26). In most studies reported, large quantities of bran were used, which cannot be easily incorporated into a normal diet. Moreover, an increased bran intake almost inevitably leads to a lower fat intake (40). This fact makes the interpretation of the data on changes of bile acid metabolism uncertain. Furthermore, compliance for the intake of large amounts of bran in the prevention of colonic diseases is likely to be limited.

Increasing the natural fiber content of the diet seems to be the most physiologic and practical way to influence secondary bile acid metabolism and indirectly (we hope) colonic carcinogenesis. In studies using dietary fiber from various sources (cereals, vegetables and fruit), no effect on total fecal bile acid excretion was found and effects on bile acid concentration were not reported (40, 41). Biliary DCA was modestly reduced on a natural high fiber diet, suggesting a decreased formation and/or absorption of DCA in the large bowel (27). However, in this last study fecal bile acids were not measured.

This controlled study shows that biliary bile acid composition can be changed on a natural high fiber diet. However, the reduction of biliary DCA and increase in CA content of bile appeared to be only transient, since after 10 weeks CA returned to baseline values and the decrease in biliary DCA content diminished compared to the value after 6 weeks. Changes observed at 6 weeks are in agreement with those of a previous study in gallstone patients (27). Marcus and Heaton (23) have shown also that administration of a concentrated wheat fiber preparation reduced the proportion biliary DCA, but that the DCA pool did not change after 6 weeks. The input of DCA from the bowel increased. Since the total bile acid pool increased, as did the cholic acid content of bile, these authors assumed that the cholic acid pool increased. If the same effects had occurred in our study, then the fall in the molar percentage of biliary DCA could have been explained by an expansion of the cholic acid pool after 6 weeks, thereby reducing the proportion of DCA in bile. As we did not carry out kinetic experiments, this explanation remains speculative.

The changes in biliary bile acid composition after 6 weeks were not accompanied



by a reduction of the secondary bile acid excretion which suggests, that secondary bile acid formation was not reduced. These findings are at odds with a previous investigation, in which we have demonstrated that lactulose – a non-absorbable disaccharide – can reduce biliary DCA by about 25% and increase the proportion of primary bile acids in the stool to 20%. This inhibiting effect on DCA formation was probably mediated by acidification of colonic contents (42). In the present study, despite the fall in fecal pH in the experimental group, colonic pH probably did not change enough to inhibit 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids. Dietary fiber is only partly digested by the colonic flora (12).

The decrease in secondary fecal bile acid concentration (expressed both in dry and wet weight) during extra fiber consumption in the experimental group compared to the control group, is in agreement with data previously reported in the literature (24, 28-30, 32, 34). However, in contrast to this study bran was used as the main fiber source in most studies. The decrease is caused by the increase in stool output, both in water and dry fecal material. The total daily excretion of bile acids did not change which is in accordance with some (28, 43-45), but in contrast to other bran and mixed diet studies, in which a dose-related increase was found in fecal bile acid excretion (29-31, 47).

In conclusion, this study shows that the concentration of the major secondary fecal bile acids can be reduced by adding extra fiber from various sources to the diet. The maximum amount of extra fiber that could be incorporated into the diet, without compromising compliance was about 15 g per day. The 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids was probably not or only transiently inhibited.

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# Relationship between biliary and serum bile acids. Prediction of the molar percentage of deoxycholic acid (DCA) in bile from the DCA content in serum.

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## Abstract

The biliary deoxycholic acid (DCA) level is a reflection of the formation and absorption of this bile acid in the large bowel and could serve as a marker for the exposure of colonic mucosa to secondary bile acid metabolites, which have been incriminated in colonic carcinogenesis.

For the study of biliary bile acid composition, duodenal intubation is a prerequisite. This invasive procedure limits its application in human studies on a larger scale. Serum bile acid analysis would overcome this drawback if a significant and reproducible correlation with biliary bile acid composition would be present. We found a significant and reproducible correlation between biliary and serum DCA in nineteen healthy volunteers (10 f; 9 m, age range 31-81 years) before and during lactulose administration. The equation of the correlation was  $Y$  (biliary DCA) =  $2.7 + 0.56 X$  (serum DCA). Within 8% variation the molar percentage of biliary DCA could thus be predicted from the serum content of DCA. The primary bile acids chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA) and cholic acid (CA) showed a much weaker correlation. Changes in biliary DCA during lactulose were equalled by changes in serum DCA content.

This study shows that the biliary DCA content can reliably be predicted from serum DCA analysis. Potential applicability could be the investigation of DCA metabolism in patients at high risk of developing colonic cancer and the manipulation of DCA formation by dietary means.

## Introduction

High concentrations of secondary bile acids, e.g. deoxycholic acid (DCA), in the large bowel have been implicated in colorectal carcinogenesis. Evidence for this role has been presented from epidemiological, experimental and metabolic investigations (1). DCA originates from cholic acid (CA) by 7  $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation by

the anaerobic flora of the large bowel (2). It is partly absorbed in the colon and enters the enterohepatic circulation (3, 4). The DCA content in bile reflects the amount of this bile acid formed and/or absorbed in the large bowel. The absorption of newly formed unconjugated DCA increases with advancing age (4) and is higher in patients with colonic adenomas, compared to age- and sex-matched controls (5). DCA, which is not absorbed, will be excreted in the faeces. The faecal concentration of DCA and other secondary bile acids increases with age as well, probably because of changes in dietary patterns with advancing age (6). Since the biliary DCA level is a reflection of the amount of DCA formed and absorbed in the large bowel, it could be used as a marker for exposure of the colonic mucosa to potentially harmful secondary bile acid metabolites.

To investigate biliary bile acids, duodenal intubation for bile sampling is a prerequisite. This invasive procedure, however, limits its application in human studies on a larger scale. Serum DCA analysis would overcome this drawback if a significant and reproducible correlation with biliary DCA measurements would be present. It has previously been demonstrated that, during bile acid administration for gallstone dissolution, biliary and serum bile acids were correlated. The relationship was found for DCA, chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), CA and ursodeoxycholic acid (UDCA) (7-9).

We studied serum and biliary bile acid composition simultaneously in healthy subjects in a protocol in which the effect of a non absorbable disaccharide, lactulose, on biliary and faecal bile acid profiles was investigated (10).

## Material and methods

### *Collection of fasting bile and serum samples*

Nineteen healthy volunteers took part in the study (10 females and 9 males; age range 31-81 yrs). Inclusion criteria for entrance in the study were published previously, as was the study design (10). The study was approved by the hospital Human Research Review Committee and all subjects gave informed written consent. The outline of the study was as follows: on 2 consecutive weeks before and after 6 and 12 weeks of lactulose administration, fasting bile and serum samples were taken for analysis of bile acid profiles. Fasting bile samples were obtained after duodenal intubation and gallbladder contraction with cholecystokinin. Fasting serum samples were obtained simultaneously from an antecubital vein. Bile acid composition before and after lactulose in bile and serum was compared and the correlation between bile and serum for the bile acids DCA, CDCA and CA was calculated.



#### *Serum bile acid analysis*

To 0.1 ml (10  $\mu$ mol/l)  $7\alpha$ ,  $12\alpha$ -dihydroxy-  $5\beta$ -cholanoic acid in methanol (internal standard, Calbiochem., USA) dried under a stream of nitrogen, 1 ml serum was added. After addition of 9 ml 0.5 Mol potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) and heating at 68 °C for 20 minutes, bile acids were extracted by means of SepPak C18 cartridges with 5 ml (70%) methanol, according to Tangerman et al (11). The sample was dried under nitrogen and 1 ml sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.7), containing 0.5 mg/ml purified cholyglycine hydrolase (Sigma, St. Louis, USA) was added to the residu. Deconjugation was performed overnight at 37 °C. After deconjugation the pH was adjusted to 3.5 (with 0.5 N HCL) and the sample was taken through a Lipidex 1000 column (2.5 x 1 cm) according to Setchell (12). After washing the Lipidex columns with 3 x 5 ml 0.5 N HCL (pH 3.5) and 3 x 5 ml distilled water, the deconjugated bile acids were extracted with 25 ml 70% methanol. The samples were dried by means of a rotary evaporator. After redissolving the bile acids in 1 ml methanol, they were transferred to small tubes and dried. Hereafter, bile acids were dissolved in methanol (1 ml) and converted to methylesters by adding 2,2-dimethoxypropane (1 ml) and HCL (0.05 ml 37%) and incubating the mixture for 1 hour at room temperature (13). After methylation the samples were dried under nitrogen at room temperature to prevent the formation of pigment polymers. Trimethylsilylation of the methylated bile acids was performed with 0,05 ml of the supernatant of a centrifuged (4500 g; 15 min.) mixture of pyridine-HMDS-TMCS (3:2:1 v/v) at 60 °C for 30 minutes. Immediately before application to the gas chromatograph (GLC) the silylation reagent was dried under nitrogen and the samples redissolved in 50  $\mu$ l n-hexane. Separation and quantitation of individual bile acids was performed on a Packard 430 GLC (Packard Instruments, Delft, The Netherlands) with flame-ionisation detector and equipped with a 25 m x 0.22 mm i.d. glasscapillary column CP-Sil-5 CB (Chrompack, Middelburg, The Netherlands). This GLC was equipped with an automatic solid injection system (Packard Instruments, Delft, The Netherlands). Helium was used as carrier gas. The injection temperature was 285 °C and a computer based stepwise increment of column temperature was used from 150-290 °C to separate the bile acids. The flame ionisation temperature was 280 °C. The internal standard was eluted before all bile acids at 18 minutes. Elution of bile acids took place between 20 and 26 minutes at 270 °C.

#### *Biliary bile acid analysis*

A fasting duodenal bile sample (2 ml) was obtained after gallbladder stimulation by cholecystokinin (Kabi-Vitrum, Sweden) in a dose of 0.5 IDU/kg body weight<sup>-1</sup>. Bile samples were stored at -20 °C until analysis. Biliary bile acids were measured by gas liquid chromatography as described previously (14).

## Statistical Methods

Linear regression analysis of bile acid profiles in serum and bile was carried out with Pearson's correlation coefficient *R*. Data before and after lactulose were analysed by the paired Wilcoxon rank sum test.

## Results

### Serum bile acid analysis

As shown in fig. 1a and 1b, complete separation of the major serum bile acids can be achieved with capillary gas liquid chromatography. The recovery of all added (un)conjugated bile acids was acceptable as shown in table I. To correct for losses, a standard mixture of conjugated and unconjugated bile acids was taken through every procedure. The reproducibility and precision of the assay was investigated by duplicate analysis of a pooled serum sample (total bile acid con-

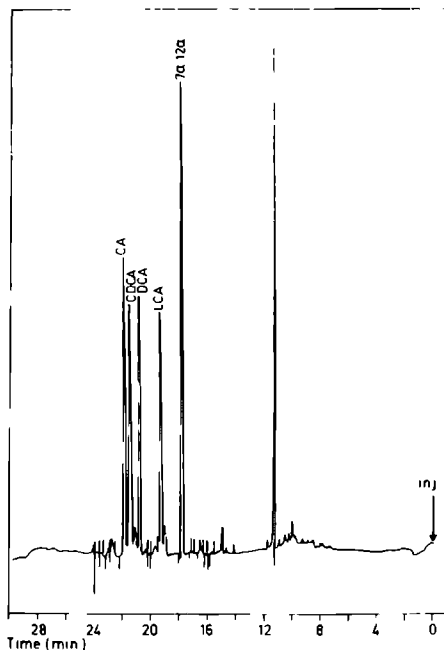


Figure 1a Separation of a mixture of unconjugated bile acids on a gas chromatograph equipped with a capillary column CP-Sil-5 CB. 7α12α: 7α, 12α dihydroxy-5β-cholanoic acid (internal standard); LCA: lithocholic acid; DCA: deoxycholic acid, CDCA: chenodeoxycholic acid; CA: cholic acid.

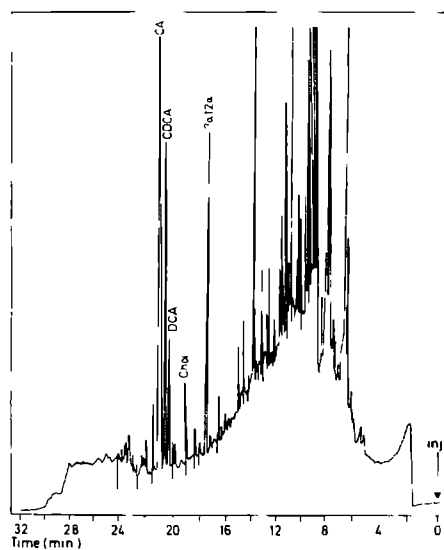


Figure 1b Separation of bile acids extracted from serum. Concentration internal standard (7α12α) 1 μmol/l. Chol: cholesterol.

**Table I** Recovery of conjugated and unconjugated free bile acids added to serum

Bile acid	Percentage recovered	
	free bile acids	conjugated bile acids
DCA	86.0 ± 6.5	82.3 ± 3.7
CDCA	85.3 ± 13.2	68.0 ± 2.8
CA	91.0 ± 3.6	86.3 ± 4.2

Means ± SD of three duplicate measurements. To 1 ml serum, 2.5 μmol/l of each bile acid was added.

Conjugated bile acids: mixture of glyco- and tauro-conjugated of each bile acid (2:1).

concentration 4.3 μM) on 8 different days and coefficients of variation of 7.2%, 5.4% and 7.6% were obtained for DCA, CDCA and CA respectively. The amount of other bile acids (like LCA and UDCA) was less than 5% of the total amount and will not be mentioned further.

#### *Correlation between biliary and serum bile acids*

As shown in fig. 2, a significant and reproducible correlation was found between the molar percentages of DCA in serum and bile both before and during lactulose. When all samples were taken together the equation of this correlation was:  $Y$  (biliary DCA) =  $2.7 + 0.56 X$  (serum DCA), as shown in figure 3. Confidence limits showed that within 8% variation the molar percentage of biliary DCA could be predicted from the serum value using this equation. The correlation coefficient for CDCA in serum and bile was less reproducible and CA showed the least significant and reproducible correlation (table II). The serum concentration of DCA decreased significantly after 12 weeks lactulose administration.

**Table II** Correlations between percentage of biliary and serum bile acids before (weeks -2, -1) and during lactulose (weeks +6, +12)

Percentage bile acid	wk-2	wk-1	wk+6	wk+12
%DCA	0.93	0.94 <sup>~</sup>	0.91	0.92 <sup>~</sup>
%CDCA	0.63	0.63	0.92	0.85 <sup>~</sup>
%CA	0.53	0.63	0.67 <sup>~</sup>	0.63 <sup>~</sup>

<sup>~</sup>  $p < 0.05$

<sup>^</sup>  $p < 0.001$

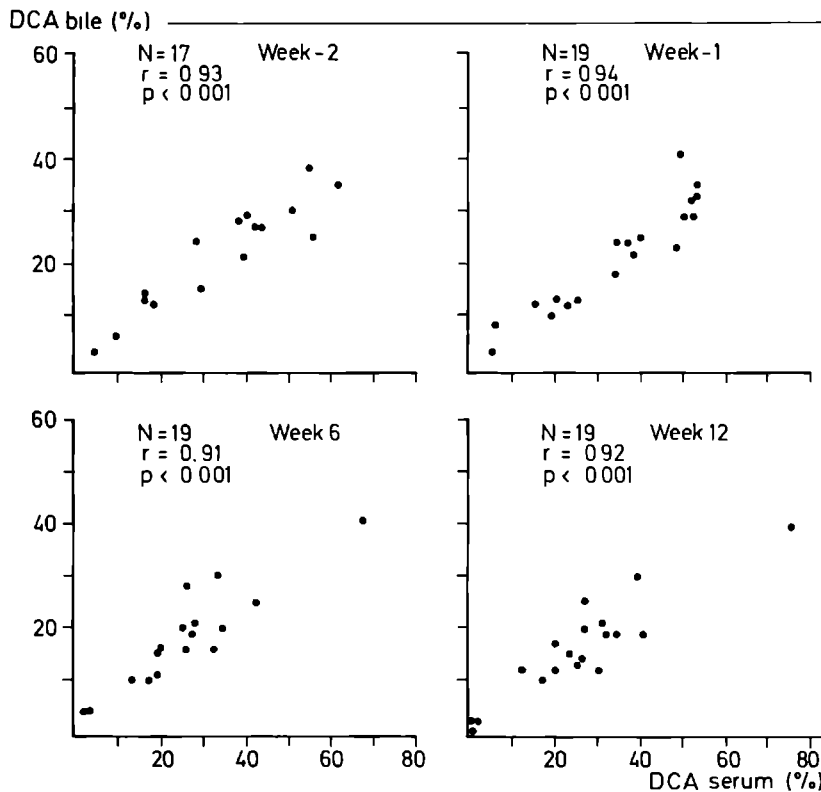


Figure 2 Correlation of molar percentages DCA in serum and bile, before (week -2 and week -1) and during lactulose administration (week 6 and week 12).

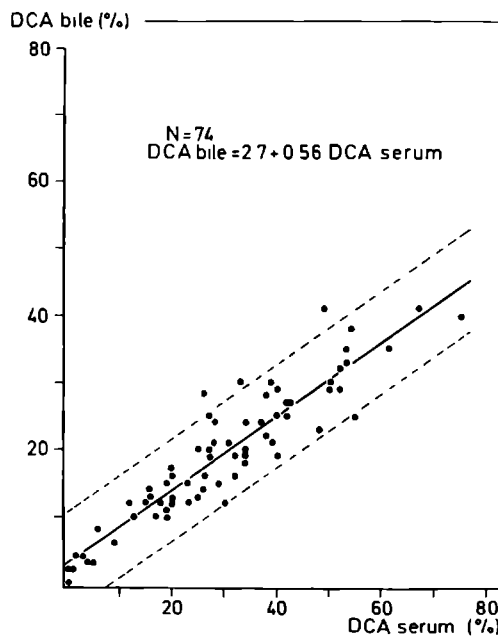


Figure 3 Correlation of molar percentages DCA in serum before and during lactulose with 95% confidence limits.

(table III). No significant changes in the concentration of CDCA and CA were observed. The reduction of the biliary DCA content during lactulose was equalled by the decline of the percentage of DCA in serum after 6 and 12 weeks (table IV). In contrast, the proportion CDCA in serum increased significantly after 6 and 12 weeks lactulose.

## Discussion

The serum level of DCA is composed of unconjugated DCA absorbed from the large bowel, where it is formed after deconjugation and 7  $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of CA and deconjugation of circulating conjugated DCA (3, 4). Conjugated DCA in serum is derived from DCA absorbed in the small bowel from the circulating DCA pool (3). The relative proportions of bile acids in blood and bile are not identical for two main reasons. Firstly, differences exist in the intestinal absorption pattern for individual bile acids (15). A dihydroxy-bile acid bypass of the hepato-ileal circuit is present, which leads to elevated CDCA and DCA levels in serum relative to CA (16). This bypass may be due to passive absorption of

*Table III Serum concentration of bile acids ( $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ; means  $\pm$  SEM) before (weeks -2, -1) and during lactulose (weeks +6, +12)*

Bile acid	wk-2	wk-1	wk+6	wk+12
DCA	0.65 $\pm$ 0.09	0.51 $\pm$ 0.07	0.46 $\pm$ 0.07	0.41 $\pm$ 0.06*
CDCA	0.84 $\pm$ 0.13	0.84 $\pm$ 0.18	0.82 $\pm$ 0.10	1.11 $\pm$ 0.20
CA	0.65 $\pm$ 0.16	0.45 $\pm$ 0.10	0.58 $\pm$ 0.14	0.50 $\pm$ 0.10

\*  $p < 0.05$  vs wks -2/-1.

*Table IV Percentage of serum bile acids (means  $\pm$  SEM) before (weeks -2, -1) and during lactulose (weeks +6, +12).*

Bile acid (%)	wk-2	wk-1	wk+6	wk+12
DCA	34.4 $\pm$ 3.7	34.3 $\pm$ 4.1	26.9 $\pm$ 3.7**	25.2 $\pm$ 3.9**
CDCA	40.0 $\pm$ 2.5	42.7 $\pm$ 3.5	46.4 $\pm$ 3.7*	52.2 $\pm$ 3.1**
CA	25.8 $\pm$ 2.6	23.1 $\pm$ 2.2	26.7 $\pm$ 3.1	22.7 $\pm$ 2.1

\*  $p < 0.05$  vs wks -2/-1

\*\*  $p < 0.01$  vs wks -2/-1

glyco-conjugates of CDCA and DCA in the jejunum (16, 17). Secondly, individual bile acids may be absorbed to different extents from the portal circulation at the liver sinusoidal surface. The fractional hepatic uptake of dihydroxy-bile acids CDCA and DCA is lower than that of CA, and unconjugated bile acids are less efficiently cleared from the portal circulation than conjugated ones (3, 17). Because of these phenomena it is obvious that serum bile acid levels are relatively enriched in conjugated CDCA, DCA and probably also in unconjugated DCA.

In this study it is shown that the molar percentage of DCA in fasting serum and bile is significantly and reproducibly correlated, despite the complex nature of its metabolism (18-19). Moreover, changes in biliary DCA during lactulose administration were equalled by changes in serum DCA. Changes in DCA metabolism that occur by manipulation of external factors (like diet) can thus be observed from serum bile acid measurements. This study confirms and extends a previous study, in which a significant correlation was found between serum and biliary DCA in 31 gallstone patients (7). The correlation between serum and bile for the other major bile acids CDCA and CA were less impressive in this study and differ from the results of Whiting and Watts (7). An explanation could be that these authors studied gallstone patients with a different biliary bile acid pattern than our healthy subjects. Also their regression analysis was based on patients treated with CDCA. In accordance with their results was our finding of a smaller percentage of CA in serum as compared with both dihydroxy-bile acids for reasons already mentioned.

It is clear that from our data no correlation with respect to pool size, synthesis, or fractional turnover of DCA can be drawn, since no kinetic experiments were done. It is, however, possible by using stable isotope techniques to gain insight into these parameters by serum bile acid analysis (20).

In conclusion, this study shows a significant and reproducible correlation between fasting serum and biliary DCA which can be a useful tool in human studies concerning DCA metabolism. Potential applicability could be the investigation of secondary bile acid metabolism in patients at high risk of developing colonic cancer and the manipulation of secondary bile acid formation by dietary means in these patients.

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## Summary and conclusions



# Summary

*Chapter I* presents an overview of the putative role of secondary bile acids in colonic carcinogenesis. Epidemiological observations indicate that a high dietary fat intake is associated positively and a high fibre intake negatively with colorectal cancer prevalence. These studies cannot clarify whether this association is causal and if so, by which mechanisms these dietary factors exert their action. An aspect of diet which is regarded important is the influence on secondary bile acid formation.

Secondary bile acids are formed by enzymatic deconjugation and 7  $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of the primary bile acids by the anaerobic flora of the large bowel. The main secondary bile acids are deoxycholic acid (DCA) and lithocholic acid (LCA). DCA is partly absorbed in the colon and enters the enterohepatic circulation. LCA is almost insoluble and very little is absorbed. More than 90% of the bile acids excreted in the faeces are the unconjugated bile acids DCA and LCA.

Secondary bile acids can act as tumour promoters in chemically induced carcinogenesis in animal models and are co-mutagenic. Furthermore, colonic epithelial proliferation can be enhanced by these bile acids. In epidemiological studies the prevalence of colonic cancer is associated with high faecal secondary bile acid concentrations. Case-control studies have given conflicting results in this respect, partly because of methodological problems.

Theoretically, inhibition of secondary bile acid formation should lead to a lower colonic cancer prevalence. In animal experiments manipulation of diet can reduce secondary bile acid levels in faeces and simultaneously the colon tumour yield. In man, secondary bile acid concentrations in bile and faeces can be lowered by adding bran to the diet. Lactulose, a non-absorbable disaccharide, which is fermented in the large bowel and reduces colonic pH, inhibits secondary bile acid formation. Diets rich in natural fibre can reduce faecal secondary bile acid concentrations but an inhibiting effect on the 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids has not been shown yet.

At this moment the evidence for a promoting role of secondary bile acids in the carcinogenesis of large bowel tumours is largely circumstantial. Prospective dietary intervention studies in subjects at high risk for the development of this tumour may provide more insight in the capability of dietary factors to influence colonic carcinogenesis, and the role of secondary bile acids in this process.

*Chapter II* describes the methodology for the determination of faecal bile acids by gas-liquid chromatography. After refluxing freeze-dried faeces in an alkaline

milieu of methanol, it is possible to extract neutral steroids in petroleum ether. The acidic steroids (bile acids) left behind are simultaneously solvolysed and methylated by adding hydrochloric acid and dimethoxypropane. After extraction of the methylated bile acids with diethyl-ether and derivatisation into trifluoroacetates, separation and quantitation by gas-liquid chromatography is possible. The major primary and secondary bile acids can be separated and quantitated. Recoveries of added radiolabelled reference bile acids: chenodeoxycholic, deoxycholic and lithocholic acid were sufficient ( $85.8 \pm 2.6$ ,  $86.3 \pm 1.7$  and  $89.7 \pm 1.6\%$ ;  $\pm$ SD, respectively) and reproducible. The intra-assay precision for the determination of the most prominent faecal bile acids LCA and DCA was 2.8 and 4%, respectively. The inter-assay precision was 9.0 and 7.2% for LCA and DCA.

*Chapter III* describes the influence of age and change in nutrient consumption on faecal bile acid profiles in healthy subjects is described. The concentration of the major faecal secondary bile acids increased with advancing age and was higher in elderly subjects compared to young adults. Analysis of dietary constituents showed that elderly subjects consumed less fibre and had a lower dry faecal material excretion than both young adults and middle-aged persons. This could well explain the increase in the faecal bile acid concentration with advancing age. Moreover, dietary fibre intake was negatively correlated to the total bile acid concentration. The results showed that an age-dependent increase in faecal secondary bile acid concentration can occur and that this phenomenon is related to changes in dietary habits. Thus, matching for age is important when case-control studies concerning the role of faecal bile acids in colorectal carcinogenesis are conducted.

*Chapter IV* presents the results of a study to determine the effects of lactulose, a nonabsorbable disaccharide, on deoxycholic acid formation in healthy subjects of two different age groups. Lactulose administration for 12 weeks reduced the biliary DCA content by 25% and increased the primary bile acid output in the stool to more than 20%. The whole gut transit time was not altered. The faecal pH dropped after 6 and further after 12 weeks lactulose. The results suggest that lactulose inhibits 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids, probably because of acidification of colonic contents.

Since lactulose is not a natural compound that can be incorporated into the diet, we have examined the effects of a natural high fiber diet on faecal and biliary bile acids, whole gut transit time and faecal pH in a controlled study. The results of this study are shown in *Chapter V*.

Healthy subjects (12) with an habitual low fibre intake increased their fibre con-

sumption from various sources. Care was taken to keep the intake of all other nutrients (especially fat) unaltered. Since not much is known about the physiological variations of bile acid metabolism when a stable diet is consumed, a control group with a habitual high fibre intake was included.

The concentration of the major faecal secondary bile acids decreased significantly in the experimental group as compared with changes in the control group. No increase of the fraction of primary bile acids occurred. The total faecal bile acid excretion did not change in the experimental group as compared with the control group. The whole gut transit time did not decrease significantly, in contrast to the faecal pH after 10 weeks in the experimental group, in comparison with changes in the control group. The biliary DCA content in the experimental group decreased after 6 weeks in comparison with the change in the control group and the proportion biliary CA increased significantly in this period. However, after 10 weeks of high fibre diet, biliary DCA increased slightly and the CA content in bile returned to the initial value.

The results show that the faecal secondary bile acid concentration can be reduced on a natural high fibre diet in man. The effect is mediated through an increase in stool wet and dry weight. The  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of primary bile acids, however, is probably not or only transiently inhibited.

The DCA content of bile is a reflection of the formation and absorption of this bile acid in the large bowel. It can therefore be used as a marker for the exposure of the colonic mucosa to secondary bile acids. To investigate biliary bile acids, duodenal intubation is a prerequisite and this invasive procedure limits its application in human studies on a larger scale. Serum bile acid analysis would overcome this drawback if a significant and reproducible correlation with biliary bile acid composition would be present. *Chapter VI* presents the results of a study in which this relationship was examined for the three major bile acids cholic acid (CA), chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA) and DCA. The study was performed in the same healthy volunteers who took part in the lactulose study from chapter IV. On two consecutive weeks before and after 6 and 12 weeks of lactulose administration, fasting bile and serum samples were obtained simultaneously. Serum and biliary bile acids were analysed by capillary gas-liquid chromatography.

The study showed that an acceptable separation and quantitation of serum bile acids was possible by using this method. A significant and reproducible correlation was found between the molar percentages of DCA in bile and serum both before and during lactulose (correlation coefficients  $>0.90$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). The equation of the correlation was:  $Y$  (biliary DCA) =  $2.7 + 0.56 X$  (serum DCA). Within 8% variation the molar percentage of DCA in bile could be predicted from the serum value using this equation. The reduction of the biliary DCA content during lactulose was equalled by the decline in the molar percentage of DCA

in serum after 6 and 12 weeks. The correlation for the other bile acids varied from 0.53 to 0.67 for CA and from 0.63 to 0.92 for CDCA.

The results of this study show that the molar percentages of biliary and serum DCA are closely interrelated and that changes in biliary DCA can be predicted from serum DCA analysis.

Potential applicability could be the investigation of DCA metabolism in patients at high risk of developing colonic cancer, and modulation of DCA metabolism by dietary means.

# Conclusions

From data in the literature and studies presented in this thesis it is clear that secondary bile acid metabolism can be influenced by dietary changes. The formation, absorption and faecal excretion of the secondary bile acid deoxycholic acid (DCA) increases with advancing age and is related to the dietary intake of fibre. Inhibition of 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylation of cholic acid (CA), inducing a decreased conversion of CA into DCA, is possible by acidification of colonic contents. However, consumption of a natural high fibre diet does not lead to such a substantial decline of the colonic pH to inhibit 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylase. The complex nature of fibre most likely explains this finding. Fibre consists of many different components, which can exert opposite effects on the colonic flora and also on bile acid metabolism. Since a high fibre intake increases the output of both stool wet and dry material, the concentrations of the major secondary bile acids in the faeces and probably also in the colonic lumen will be reduced.

Whether these effects will lead to a reduction in colonic cancer prevalence has yet to be proven. Experiments in which the dynamics of the enterohepatic circulation of DCA are investigated (by isotope dilution by which pool size, fractional turnover, synthesis and/or input can be calculated) on diets with different fibre contents could elucidate the mechanism by which fibre exerts its action.

A prospective dietary intervention trial in patients with an increased risk of developing colonic cancer could answer the question whether diet really plays an important role in the causation of this disease.





## Samenvatting en conclusies



# Samenvatting

In *hoofdstuk I* wordt een overzicht gegeven van de mogelijke rol die secundaire galzuren spelen in het ontstaan van coloncarcinoom. Uit epidemiologisch onderzoek is gebleken, dat consumptie van vet positief en van vezel negatief is gecorreleerd aan de prevalentie van coloncarcinoom. Dit onderzoek geeft geen opheldering over een oorzakelijk verband en, indien een dergelijke relatie zou bestaan, op welke wijze deze voedingsfactoren hun effect bewerkstelligen. Een aspect van voeding dat belangrijk wordt geacht is de invloed op de vorming van secundaire galzuren.

Secundaire galzuren worden gevormd na enzymatische deconjugatie en  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylatie van de primaire galzuren door de anaerobe flora van de dikke darm. De belangrijkste secundaire galzuren bij de mens zijn deoxycholzuur (DCA) en lithocholzuur (LCA). Deoxycholzuur wordt gedeeltelijk geabsorbeerd in het colon en komt aldus in de enterohepatische kringloop terecht. Lithocholzuur is vrijwel onoplosbaar en zeer weinig wordt geresorbeerd. De galzuren die worden uitgescheiden in de ontlasting, bestaan voor meer dan 90% uit ongeconjugeerd deoxy- en lithocholzuur.

Secundaire galzuren kunnen een rol spelen als promoverende factoren in door chemische stoffen opgewekte colontumoren bij proefdieren en zijn bovendien co-mutageen. De proliferatie van colonepitheel kan door deze galzuren worden versterkt. De prevalentie van coloncarcinoom heeft een relatie met hoge concentraties van secundaire galzuren in de ontlasting. Studies waarin patiënten met coloncarcinoom werden vergeleken met gezonde controle personen, hebben wat dit betreft tegengestelde resultaten opgeleverd, hetgeen gedeeltelijk te verklaren is door methodologische problemen in de faecale galzuur bepaling.

Theoretisch zou een remming van de vorming van secundaire galzuren moeten leiden tot een daling in de prevalentie van colontumoren. In onderzoek met proefdieren kan de faecale concentratie van secundaire galzuren worden verlaagd en het aantal colontumoren afnemen door veranderingen in de voedingsamenstelling. Bij de mens kan de hoeveelheid secundaire galzuren in de gal en de ontlasting afnemen door zemelen aan de voeding toe te voegen. Lactulose, een disaccharide dat niet in de dunne darm wordt gesplitst en geabsorbeerd, wordt in het colon afgebroken door de bacteriele flora in korte keten vetzuren. Hierdoor ontstaat een daling van de intraluminale pH in de darm, hetgeen de  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylatie van primaire galzuren remt en zo de vorming van secundaire galzuren. Voedingen die rijk zijn aan natuurlijke vezels kunnen de concentratie van secundaire galzuren in de faeces doen dalen, echter of de vorming van deze galzuren afneemt, is nog omstrede.

Op dit ogenblik bestaan er alleen indirecte aanwijzingen, dat secundaire galzuren een promoverende rol spelen in het ontstaan van coloncarcinoom. Prospective interventie studies met voedingen van verschillende samenstelling bij personen met een hoog risico op het ontstaan van deze tumoren, zou meer inzicht kunnen verschaffen in het effect van voedingsfactoren op de coloncarcinogenese en de rol van galzuren hierin.

In *hoofdstuk II* wordt de methode beschreven waarmee de faecale galzuren met behulp van gaschromatografie kunnen worden bepaald.

Nadat gevriesdroogde faeces in een alkalisch milieu van methanol een reflux procedure heeft ondergaan om de galzuren los te maken van de aanwezige droge stof, kunnen neutrale steroïden worden geëxtraheerd in petroleumether. De zure steroïden (galzuren) die achter zijn gebleven, worden dan gelijktijdig gedesulfateerd en gemethyleerd door zoutzuur en dimethoxypropaan aan de oplossing toe te voegen. Nadat de gemethyleerde galzuren met diethylether zijn geëxtraheerd, worden er trifluoroacetaat verbindingen van gemaakt, die dan met behulp van de gaschromatograaf worden gescheiden en gekwantificeerd. De belangrijkste primaire en secundaire galzuren kunnen aldus worden gescheiden en gekwantificeerd. De opbrengst van de toegevoegde radio-actieve referentie galzuren chenodeoxycholzuur, deoxycholzuur en lithocholzuur was voldoende (respectievelijk  $85.8 \pm 2.6$ ,  $86.3 \pm 1.7$  en  $89.7 \pm 1.6\%$ ) en reproduceerbaar. De variatie binnen een bepaling voor de belangrijkste faecale galzuren lithocholzuur en deoxycholzuur was respectievelijk 2.8 en 4.0%. De variatie tussen verschillende bepalingen was 9.0 en 7.2% voor litho- en deoxycholzuur.

In *hoofdstuk III* wordt de invloed van leeftijd en daarmee samenhangende verandering in voedingsgewoontes op de faecale galzuur profielen beschreven. De concentratie van de belangrijkste faecale secundaire galzuren nam toe met de leeftijd en was hoger bij oudere personen dan bij jonge volwassenen. Analyse van voedingsgegevens liet zien dat oudere personen minder vezel consumeerden. Zij scheidden minder droog faeces materiaal uit dan zowel jonge volwassenen als personen van middelbare leeftijd. Dit zou goed de verklaring kunnen zijn voor de toename in de secundaire galzuurconcentratie bij oudere personen. Bovendien was de hoeveelheid vezel die werd gebruikt negatief gecorreleerd met de totale faecale galzuurconcentratie.

De resultaten van deze studie toonden een leeftijdsafhankelijke toename in de concentratie van secundaire galzuren in de ontlasting aan en een relatie met veranderingen in voedingsgewoontes. Het is daarom belangrijk dat in studies waarin faecale galzuren worden gemeten bij patiënten met colontumoren en gezonde controle personen, de groepen qua leeftijd vergelijkbaar zijn.

In *hoofdstuk IV* worden de resultaten beschreven van een onderzoek om de effecten van lactulose (een niet in de dunne darm gesplitst of geabsorbeerd disaccharide) op de vorming van deoxycholzuur te meten bij gezonde personen van twee verschillende leeftijds categorieën. Toediening van lactulose gedurende 12 weken deed het gehalte aan deoxycholzuur in de gal met 25% dalen en de excretie van primaire galzuren in de ontlasting tot ruim 20% toenemen. De totale darmpassagetijd veranderde niet. De pH van de faeces daalde na 6 en verder na 12 weken lactulose toediening. Deze resultaten geven aan dat de 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylatie van primaire galzuren wordt geremd door lactulose, waarschijnlijk als gevolg van aanzuring van de inhoud van de dikke darm.

Aangezien lactulose geen natuurlijk voorkomende voedingsstof is die kan worden toegevoegd aan een normale voeding, zijn de effecten van een natuurlijke, vezelrijke voeding op de galzuursamenstelling van faeces en gal, op de totale darmpassagetijd en op de faecale pH onderzocht in een gecontroleerde studie. De resultaten worden beschreven in *hoofdstuk V*.

Gezonde vrijwilligers die een relatief vezelarme voeding gebruikten, verhoogden hun vezelconsumptie (afkomstig van zowel granen, fruit als groente) gedurende 10 weken. Er werd nauwlettend op toegezien, dat er in de consumptie van andere voedingsstoffen (speciaal vet) niets veranderde. Een groep personen die een relatief vezelrijke voeding gebruikte en deze gedurende de gehele studie periode bleef gebruiken, fungeerde als controle groep.

De concentratie van de belangrijkste faecale secundaire galzuren daalde significant in de experimentele groep, vergeleken met veranderingen in de controle groep. De hoeveelheid primaire galzuren nam niet toe. De totale galzuuruitscheiding in de experimentele groep veranderde niet ten opzichte van veranderingen in de controle groep.

De totale darmpassagetijd veranderde niet, doch de faecale pH daalde na 10 weken in de experimentele groep, vergeleken met veranderingen in de controle-groep.

Het aandeel van deoxycholzuur in de galsamenstelling daalde na 6 weken in de experimentele groep, in vergelijking met de controlegroep en het aandeel van cholzuur steeg in deze periode. Echter, na 10 weken vezelrijke voeding, steeg het deoxycholzuur-gehalte licht en daalde het cholzuur-gehalte tot de uitgangswaarde.

De resultaten van deze studie laten zien, dat de concentratie van de faecale secundaire galzuren daalt tijdens een natuurlijke vezelrijke voeding. Dit effect berust op een toename in het natte en droge gewicht van de ontlasting. De 7 $\alpha$ -dehydroxylatie van primaire galzuren wordt echter waarschijnlijk niet of slechts tijdelijk geremd.

Het gehalte deoxycholzuur in gal weerspiegelt de vorming en absorptie van dit galzuur in de dikke darm. Het kan daarom gebruikt worden als de mate waarin de colonmucosa wordt blootgesteld aan secundaire galzuren. Om de galzuursamenstelling van de gal te kunnen onderzoeken, is intubatie van het doudenum noodzakelijk. Het feit dat dit een invasieve procedure is, beperkt de toepassing ervan op grotere schaal in humane studies. Serum galzuur analyse zou dit bezwaar kunnen ondervangen, als er een significante en reproduceerbare correlatie met de galzuursamenstelling in de gal zou bestaan.

In *hoofdstuk VI* worden de resultaten beschreven van een onderzoek, waarin de relatie tussen de belangrijkste galzuren: cholzuur, chenodeoxycholzuur en deoxycholzuur in serum en gal werd nagegaan. Het onderzoek werd uitgevoerd bij dezelfde gezonde vrijwilligers die deelnamen aan de lactulose studie uit hoofdstuk IV. Op twee achtereenvolgende weken voor en na 6 en 12 weken lactulose toediening werden gelijktijdig nuchtere gal- en serum-monsters afgenomen. Serum-galzuren werden bepaald middels capillaire gaschromatografie. Het bleek dat de galzuren in serum met deze methode betrouwbaar gescheiden en gekwantificeerd konden worden.

Er werd een significante en reproduceerbare correlatie gevonden tussen de molaire percentages deoxycholzuur in serum en gal, zowel voor als tijdens toediening van lactulose (correlatie coëfficiënten  $>90\%$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). De vergelijking van de correlatie was:  $Y \text{ (DCA in gal)} = 2.7 + 0.56 X \text{ (DCA in serum)}$ . Met behulp van deze vergelijking kon het molair percentage van deoxycholzuur in gal worden voorspeld uit de serum-waarde met een variatie van 8%. De afname van het gehalte deoxycholzuur in gal gedurende lactulose weerspiegelde zich in een evenredige afname in serum na 6 en 12 weken. De correlatie tussen gal en serum voor de andere galzuren varieerde van 0.53 tot 0.67 voor cholzuur en van 0.63 tot 0.92 voor chenodeoxycholzuur.

De resultaten van deze studie laten zien dat de molaire percentages van het gehalte deoxycholzuur in gal en serum nauw met elkaar samenhangen en dat veranderingen in het percentage deoxycholzuur in gal voorspelt kunnen worden uit de veranderingen in het serum deoxycholzuur gehalte.

Potentiële toepassing zou kunnen bestaan uit het bestuderen van het deoxycholzuur metabolisme bij patiënten met een verhoogd risico op het ontstaan van coloncarcinoom en het beïnvloeden van het deoxycholzuur metabolisme via veranderingen in het voedingspatroon.

# Conclusies

Uit de literatuur en studies in dit proefschrift is het duidelijk, dat het metabolisme van secundaire galzuren kan worden beïnvloed via veranderingen in de voeding. De vorming, absorptie en faecale excretie van het secundaire galzuur deoxycholzuur neemt toe met het stijgen van de leeftijd en is gerelateerd aan de consumptie van vezels. Remming van de  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylatie van cholzuur, met als gevolg een afgenomen omzetting van cholzuur in deoxycholzuur, is mogelijk door aanzuring van de colon inhoud. Echter het gebruik van een voeding rijk aan natuurlijke vezels leidt niet altijd tot een zodanige daling van de pH in het colon, dat het enzym  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylase wordt geremd. De complexiteit van vezel is de meest voor de hand liggende verklaring van deze bevinding. Vezelstoffen bestaan uit vele verschillende verbindingen die uiteenlopende en tegengestelde effecten kunnen hebben op de bacteriële flora in het colon en ook op het metabolisme van galzuren. Aangezien een grote vezelconsumptie de uitscheiding van zowel natte als droge stof in de ontlasting doet toenemen, zullen de concentraties van de secundaire galzuren in de faeces en waarschijnlijk ook in het colon afnemen.

Het moet nog worden aangetoond, dat deze effecten zullen leiden tot een daling in de prevalentie van colon carcinoom. Experimenten waarin de dynamiek van de enterohepatische circulatie van deoxycholzuur wordt bestudeerd (middels isotopen-dilutie, waardoor de grootte van de voorraad, de halfwaardetijd, de synthese en/of de absorptie kan worden berekend), met behulp van voedingen met verschillende vezelgehalten zou meer inzicht kunnen verschaffen in het werkingsmechanisme van deze verbindingen.

Een prospectief opgezet voedingsinterventie-onderzoek bij patiënten met een verhoogd risico op het ontstaan van coloncarcinoom kan de vraag beantwoorden of voeding werkelijk een belangrijke rol speelt in het ontstaan van deze ziekte.





# Woorden van dank

Een proefschrift is, hoewel de titelpagina vaak anders doet vermoeden, vrijwel nooit het werk van één persoon. Dit proefschrift is daarop geen uitzondering. Derhalve is een woord van dank aan allen die direct of indirect aan de totstandkoming hebben bijgedragen op zijn plaats.

Zonder de medewerking en inzet van vele vrijwilligers had er geen enkel onderzoek kunnen worden uitgevoerd. Zij hebben een zeer belangrijke bijdrage geleverd aan de totstandkoming van dit proefschrift. Ik ben aan hen veel dank verschuldigd.

Bij het opzetten en uitvoeren van de bepaling van faecale galzuren en in een latere fase van de serum galzuurbepaling heeft mevrouw M.P.C. Hectors een doorslaggevende rol gespeeld. Beste Magda, je hebt me ingewijd in de geheimen van de klinische chemie en in de galzuuranalyse in het bijzonder. Bovendien was je inzet bij het verzamelen van gal- en serummonsters en het aangenaam bezig houden van de (geïntubeerde) proefpersonen prijzenswaardig.

Mijn eerste schreden op het gebied van de galzuren werden begeleid door dr. S.D.J. van der Werf, internist. Beste Sjoerd, jij hebt me als geen ander getoond hoe een onderzoek met vrijwilligers op te zetten en uit te voeren. Ik heb later nog dankbaar gebruik gemaakt van de lijst van instellingen in deze regio via welke gezonde en bovenal zeer coöperatieve proefpersonen benaderd konden worden. Alle medewerkers, doch in het bijzonder Annie van Schayk, van het laboratorium maag-, darm en leverziekten (hoofd: Dr. A. Tangerman) worden bedankt voor de plezierige samenwerking die er steeds was en nog is.

Voor de metingen van de uitscheiding van radio-actief gemerkte galzuren in de ontlasting deed ik nooit tevergeefs een beroep op Wim van de Broek (afdeling Nucleaire Geneeskunde, hoofd: Prof. Dr. F.H.M. Corstens). Wil Buys, van dezelfde afdeling, ben ik zeer erkentelijk voor het invoeren in de computer en statistisch bewerken van de vaak omvangrijke hoeveelheid gegevens.

Het maken van röntgenopnamen van faecaliën behoort niet tot de dagelijkse taak van de afdeling radiodiagnostiek (hoofd: Prof. Dr. J.H.J. Ruijs). Toch waren de medewerkers van deze afdeling te allen tijde bereid hieraan mee te werken, waarvoor mijn dank.

De wezenlijke bijdrage van de diëtistes van de Kliniek voor Inwendige Ziekten mag niet onvermeld blijven; in het bijzonder Riky Lamers die veel zorg heeft besteed aan de begeleiding van deelnemers aan het onderzoek en aan de uitwerking van de voedingssamenstelling.

Voor het uitvoeren van incubatie-experimenten onder anaerobe condities kon

altijd gebruik worden gemaakt van de apparatuur op het Centraal Dierenlaboratorium (hoofd: Prof. Dr. W.J.I. van der Gulden). De medewerking van met name Dr. J.P. Koopman en zijn staf werd zeer op prijs gesteld.

De medewerkers van het Centraal Magazijn worden bedankt voor de verstrekking van de vele dozen droogijs, veelal buiten werktijd.

De noodzakelijke literatuur-informatie werd steeds snel en accuraat verzorgd door de medewerkers van de Medische Bibliotheek (hoofd destijds: dhr. E. de Graaf, later mevr. drs. S. Bakker).

Dank ook aan de medewerkers van de afdeling Medische Illustratie en in het bijzonder aan dhr. C. Nicolassen die op vakkundige wijze de tekeningen heeft vervaardigd. De afdeling Medische Fotografie zorgde vervolgens voor het fotograferen en afdrukken.

Bij de uitvoering van de vezelstudie was de hulp en inzet van een aantal doctoraal studenten Humane Voeding van de Landbouwuniversiteit te Wageningen van wezenlijk belang. Greetje van de Ban, Rianne Leenen, Jan-Peter Ploemen en Peter Zock: jullie worden bedankt voor de uiterst prettige en leerzame samenwerking. Jan Glatz en Frans Schouten van het laboratorium van de vakgroep Humane Voeding (hoofd: Prof. Dr. J.G.A.L. Hautvast) van de Landbouwuniversiteit verleenden regelmatig hulp bij het opzetten van de faecale galzuurbepaling.

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Voor het bewerken van de gegevens van de laatste twee hoofdstukken van dit proefschrift heb ik veel hulp gehad van Ton de Haan van de Mathematisch Statistische Adviesafdeling (hoofd: drs. Ph. van Elteren), waarvoor mijn dank.

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Mijn collega's van de afdeling Maag-, Darm- en Leverziekten dank ik voor het inspringen bij klinische werkzaamheden tijdens het afronden van dit proefschrift.

# Curriculum vitae

De auteur van dit proefschrift werd geboren op 6 februari 1950 te Groningen. In 1967 werd het eindexamen HBS-B behaald aan het Heymans Lyceum te Groningen. Aansluitend studeerde hij geneeskunde aan de Rijksuniversiteit te Groningen, behaalde het doctoraalexamen in 1972 en het artsexamen in 1974. Vervolgens was hij tot september 1975 werkzaam als arts-assistent op de afdeling Inwendige Geneeskunde van het Streekziekenhuis Midden Twente (destijds: Koningin Juliana Ziekenhuis; internisten H.K. van Schothorst en A.J. te Rijdt). Van september 1975 tot november 1978 volgde hij de opleiding tot internist in het St. Geertuiden Ziekenhuis te Deventer (opleider: J.H. Scholten, internist). De opleiding werd vanaf november 1978 voortgezet aan de Universiteitskliniek voor Inwendige Ziekten van het Sint Radboudziekenhuis te Nijmegen (hoofd destijds: Prof. Dr. C.L.H. Majoort en thans Prof. Dr. A. van 't Laar). Op 1 september 1980 werd hij ingeschreven als internist in het specialistenregister.

Vanaf 1981 is hij verbonden aan de afdeling Maag-, Darm- en Leverziekten (hoofd: Dr. J.H.M. van Tongeren). In oktober 1985 werd de opleiding tot gastroenteroloog voltooid. Hij is getrouwd met Riekje Kooi en zij hebben 3 kinderen: Annemiek, Wouter en Marleen.







# Stellingen

1. De concentratie van secundaire galzuren in de ontlasting stijgt met de leeftijd en hangt samen met een verandering in voedingsgewoontes.  
– *dit proefschrift* –
2. Door voldoende aanzuring van de inhoud van de dikke darm wordt de  $7\alpha$ -dehydroxylatie van primaire galzuren geremd en aldus de vorming van secundaire galzuren.  
– *dit proefschrift* –
3. Consumptie van een voeding rijk aan vezels uit diverse bronnen leidt wel tot een daling van de concentratie van secundaire galzuren in de ontlasting, doch waarschijnlijk niet tot een remming van de vorming van deze galzuren.  
– *dit proefschrift* –
4. Als preventief oncologische behandeling van patiënten met polyposis coli moet het uitvoeren van een totale colectomie met aanleggen van een ileo-anale anastomose als eerste keus behandeling worden beschouwd.
5. Bij het opsporen en in kaart brengen van families met een erfelijke vorm van coloncarcinoom is de hulp van de huisarts onmisbaar.
6. Bij patiënten met grote choledochusstenen die niet endoscopisch verwijderd kunnen worden, kan aanvullende extra-corporele lithotripsie deze stenen zodanig fragmenteren, dat spontane uitdrijving alsnog plaatsvindt.  
*T Sauerbruch et al. N Engl J Med 1986; 314: 818-22.*  
*SH Yap, FM Nagengast, eigen waarnemingen.*
7. Het spastische-bekkenbodemsyndroom is een vaak niet herkende oorzaak van obstipatie en kan middels defaecografisch onderzoek betrekkelijk eenvoudig worden opgespoord.  
*JHC Kuipers, G Bleyenberg. Ned Tijdschr Geneesk 1985; 19:1624-8.*

8. Als een patiënt met bloedende oesophagusvarices die wordt behandeld met vasopressine in coma raakt, moet niet alleen een coma hepaticum worden overwogen, doch ook aan een waterintoxicatie worden gedacht.  
*SJ Graafsma, FM Nagengast, eigen waarnemingen.*
9. Bij een patiënt met een hemodynamisch belangrijke aortastenose die recidiverend intestinale bloedingen heeft als gevolg van angiodysplasieën in de darm, kunnen deze bloedingen tot staan worden gebracht door het vervangen van de aortaklep door een prothese.  
*MS Chappell, O Lebowitz. Ann Intern Med 1986; 105: 54-7.*  
*Eigen waarnemingen.*
10. Ultrasonografie kan een waardevol hulpmiddel zijn bij de diagnostiek van acute appendicitis.  
*JBCN Puylaert et al. N Eng J Med 1987; 317: 666-9.*
11. In het voorkómen van bronchospasmen bij blootstelling aan een allergisch agens is de ontwikkeling van cromoglicaat een zeer belangrijke stap vooruit geweest voor patiënten met CARA.
12. Hoewel veelal toegeschreven aan Frederic Chopin (1810-1849), is de Ierse componist John Fields (1782-1837) de „uitvinder” van de nocturne.
13. Gepromoveerd zijn betekent ook: nooit meer 's nachts beklemd titelloos wakker worden en denken..... dr staat niets voor m'n naam!  
*Vrij naar Wim Kan.*
14. Wadlopen is meer dan wat lopen.

F.M. Nagengast

Nijmegen, 30 september 1988





